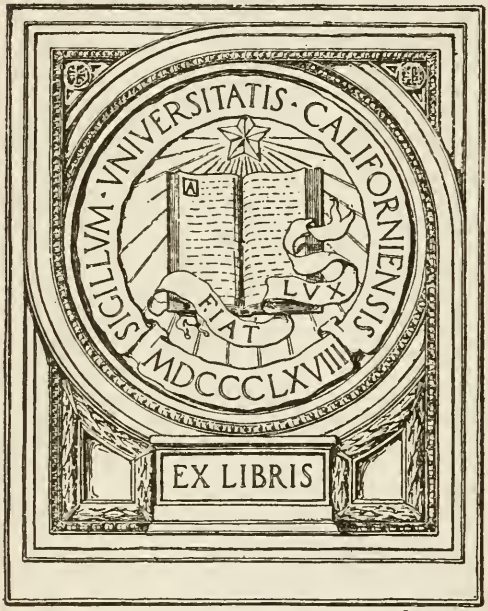
BOUGHT FROM
Southern Donation



949

Price 25 Cents.

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2008 with funding from
Microsoft Corporation

http://www.archive.org/details/grammarofirishla00joycrich

A GRAMMAR

OF THE

IRISH LANGUAGE

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

BY

P. W. JOYCE, LL.D., T.C.D., M.R.I.A.,

ONE OF THE PROFESSORS IN THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT OF THE COMMISSIONERS OF NATIONAL EDUCATION, IRELAND.

NEW YORK:
PRINTED BY LYNCH, COLE & MEEHAN,
AT THE OFFICE OF THE "IRISH-AMERICAN,"
No. 12 WARREN STREET.
1879.

PREFACE.

THOUGH this text-book is small, it comprises, I believe, everything necessary—so far as grammar is concerned—for a student of modern Irish. I have not treated at all of the ancient forms of the language; and I have excluded everything in the shape of dissertation: the grammar of the modern Irish language, and no more, is here set forth, in words as few and simple as possible. I have not suggested any changes either in spelling or in grammatical forms, or attempted innovation of any kind: this is a grammar of the language as it actually exists in the works of our best writers. All the illustrative examples are quotations from standard Irish writings; but though I retain the references, I have not given them in the grammar, as they would encumber the book, and impede, rather than facilitate the learner. I may mention here, however, that the works from which the examples are chiefly taken, are, those of Keating, the publications of the Ossianic Society, "The Three Sorrowful Stories of Erin" (viz., "The Fate of the Children of Usna," "The Fate of the Children of Lir," and "The Fate of the Children of Turenn"), and occasionally "The Annals of the Four Masters." The language of the various works published by the Archæological and Celtic Societies is generally too antiquated to be quoted in a grammar of modern Irish. I have all through given word-for-word translations of the examples: free translations would have been more pleasant to read, but would have added considerably to the learner's difficulty. In the last Part—"Idioms"—I have given a popular rather than a scientific explanation of the principal idioms of the language. Nothing like this is to be found in any other Irish Grammar; and I believe that the learner who masters it will be saved much labor and perplexity. There are several other Irish Grammars, but none low enough in price to be within reach of the many. Whoever wishes to study the Irish language in its ancient as well as in its modern forms, must procure O'Donovan's Grammar; without this great work no one can attain a thorough knowledge of the language. I may also mention "The College Irish Grammar," by the Rev. Ulick J. Canon Bourke, in which there is a great amount of miscellaneous information on the language, proverbs, and popular literature of Ireland. The labors of the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language have lately given a great impetus to Celtic studies. The Society has produced three admirable little elementary books (the First, Second and Third Irish Books),—all drawn up by the members themselves on the plan of the elementary works of Smith, Arnold, Ahn, &c. But the want of a very cheap and simple text-book on Irish Grammar has been much felt; and this Grammar has been written to supply the want. I have written it with the cognisance of the Council of the Society, of which I am myself a member. It was at first intended that the name of the Society should appear on the title-page along with my own name, and a resolution to that effect was passed by the Council. But I found some difficulty as to the exact words, and I have accordingly contented myself with mentioning the matter here. I acknowledge with thanks that I have received valuable assistance from several gentlemen of the Society, who read every word of my proofs, suggesting various corrections, alterations, and improvements. One member in particular, Mr. John Fleming, of Rathgormack, in the county Waterford, read all my manuscript in the first instance, and all the proof-sheets afterwards. Mr. Fleming's assistance was invaluable to me, for he possesses an intimate knowledge of modern Irish Grammar, language, and literature, and, what is still better, much sound sense and clear, critical judgment.

DUBLIN, *November*, 1878.

M544715

CONTENTS.

—o—

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

PAGE.

CHAPTER I.—SOUNDS..... 9

I. Letters..... 11
II Diphthongs..... 12
III. Triphthongs..... 13
IV. Various Sounds..... 13

CHAPTER II.—LETTER CHANGES..... 14

I. Aspiration..... 14
II. Rules for Aspiration..... 15
III. Eclipsis..... 16
IV. Rules for Eclipsis..... 17
V. Caol le caol agus leathan le leathan..... 18
VI. Syncope..... 19

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER I.—THE ARTICLE..... 21

I. Change of form in the Article..... 21
II. Changes produced by the Article..... 22
Singular..... 22
Plural..... 22

CHAPTER II.—THE NOUN..... 23

I. Gender..... 23
Masculine..... 23
Feminine..... 23
II. Declensions..... 24
Cases..... 24
First Declension..... 25
Second Declension..... 26
Third Declension..... 28
Fourth Declension..... 29
Fifth Declension..... 30
Irregular Declension..... 30
Declension of the Article with the Noun..... 32

PAGE.

CHAPTER III.—THE ADJECTIVE..... 32

I. Declension of Adjectives..... 32
First Declension..... 33
Second Declension..... 33
Third Declension..... 33
Fourth Declension..... 34
II. Declension of the Article and Adjective with the Noun..... 34
III. Comparison of Adjectives..... 35
Irregular Comparison..... 36
IV. Numeral Adjectives..... 36

CHAPTER IV.—THE PRONOUN..... 38

I. Personal Pronouns..... 38
Declension of Personal Pronouns..... 38
Personal Pronouns compounded with Prepositions..... 39
II. Possessive Pronouns..... 42
Possessive Pronouns compounded with Prepositions..... 42
III. Relative Pronouns..... 43
IV. Demonstrative Pronouns..... 43
V. Interrogative Pronouns..... 44
VI. Indefinite Pronouns..... 44

CHAPTER V.—THE VERB..... 44

I. Persons: Synthetic and Analytic forms..... 44
II. Tenses..... 46
III. Moods and Voices..... 46
IV. Conjugation of the regular verb buaɿl..... 47
IV. Relative form of the Verb..... 49
V. Formation and uses of the moods and tenses of Regular Verbs..... 49
VI. Verbs in uɿʒ, ɿl, ɿŋ, ɿɲ, ɿr..... 53
Paradigm of the regular Verb meall..... 55
Paradigm of the regular Verb ánduɿʒ..... 56
VII. Irregular Verbs:..... 57
1. Táɿm, I am..... 57
2. Jr, it is..... 60
3. bheɿɲɿm, I give..... 61
4. beɿɲɿm, I bear..... 62
5. Chím, I see..... 63
6. Cluɿŋɿm, I hear..... 64
7. Déaŋaɿm, I do..... 64
8. Ʒŋím, or ŋím, I do..... 65
9. Deɿɲɿm, I say..... 66
10. Faʒaɿm, or ʒeɿbɿm, I find..... 67
11. Jtɿm, I eat..... 68

PAGE

12. Ꝛiġim, I reach 68
13. Téiðim, I go 69
14. Tiġim, I come 70
Other Defective Verbs 70

CHAPTER VI.—Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Interjections 71
I Adverbs 71
II. Prepositions 72
III. Conjunctions 74
IV. Interjections 75

CHAPTER VII.—Prefixes and Affixes 75
I. Prefixes 75
II. Affixes or terminations 77

PART III.

SYNTAX.

CHAPTER I.—Nouns 79
CHAPTER II.—The Article and Noun 81
CHAPTER III.—The Adjective and Noun 82
Agreement and collocation of the Adjective and Noun 82

CHAPTER IV.—Numeral Adjectives 85

CHAPTER V.—The Pronoun 86
I. Personal Pronouns 86
II. Possessive Pronouns 86
III. Relative Pronouns 87
IV. Demonstrative Pronouns 88
V. Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns 88

CHAPTER VI.—The Verb 88
CHAPTER VII.—Prepositions 91

PART IV.

IDIOMS.

Explanation and illustration of forty-three Idioms of the Irish Languge 93

APPENDIX.

Additional examples of declensions of nouns 110

SCHOOL

IRISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

SOUNDS.

I. LETTERS.

1. The Irish alphabet consists of eighteen letters, of which thirteen are consonants and five are vowels.

2. The five vowels are a, e, i, o, u; of which a, o, u are broad, and e, i are slender.

3. Each consonant (with the exceptions mentioned below) has a broad and a slender sound. When a consonant comes immediately after or before a broad vowel, it has its broad sound: when it comes after or before a slender vowel, it has its slender sound. But this does not apply to b, p, h, m, p, each of which has one sound only, whether joined with a broad vowel or a slender vowel.

4. Vowels are either long or short. A long vowel is usually marked by an accent; as bán, white: a short vowel has no mark; as mac, a son.

5. The Irish vowels, like the English, have an obscure sound in unaccented syllables, of which it is not necessary to take further notice here.

6. The following are the usual sounds of the Irish letters, so far as they can be represented by English letters:—

7. Those marked with asterisks are only imperfectly represented in sound by the corresponding English letters: those not so marked are represented perfectly or nearly so.

8. The sounds of the marked letters must be learned by ear: it is hardly possible to give in writing such a description of them as would enable a learner to utter them.

9. C is equal to *k*, yet when it comes before the diphthong ao, or the thriphthong aoi, beginners find it very hard to sound it: caol (narrow) is neither *kail* nor *quail*, but something between; caoin (gentle) is neither *keen* nor *queen*, but something between

10. So also with g, which (broad and slender) is equal to *g* in *got* and *get:* yet gaol is hard for a beginner to utter, being neither *gail* nor *gwail*, but something between.

11. The Irish broad d and t bear the same relation to each other as the English *d* and *t;* that is, the first in each case is flat and soft, and the second sharp and hard. English *d* and *t* are sounded by placing the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth; Irish d and t by placing the top of the tongue against the upper front teeth. Irish d and t may be described in another way: the two sounds of *th* in *those* and *thumb* are both *continuous*, the first flat, the second sharp. Now the two *explosive* sounds corresponding to these two continuous sounds (*i.e.*, with the tongue in the same position), are exactly the Irish d and t.

12. Broad l and n are sounded by placing the top of the tongue (not against the roof of the mouth as in case of English *l* and *n*, but) against the upper front teeth. Irish d and t are to English *d* and *t* as Irish l or n to English *l* or *n*.

13. Slender n is the most difficult of all the Irish consonantal sounds; and learners, unless they have acquired it in youth, often fail to articulate it correctly, though the teacher may sound it over and over again for their imitation.

14. As h represents a mere breathing or aspiration, and not an articulate tound, and as it never begins a word, some writers exclude it from the letters, thus making seventeen instead of eighteen, as given here.

TABLE OF SOUNDS.

	Letters. Irish.	Eng.	Vowel long or short.	Consonant broad or slender.	Irish sounds.	Corresponding English sounds.
	A a	a	long	—	láṅ	*law*n, b*all*
	,, ,,		short	—	ṁaċ	h*a*t or wh*a*t
	B b	b	—	—	ball	*b*an
	C c	c	—	broad	cab	*c*ob
	,, ,,		—	slender	cinṅ	*k*ing
*	D d	d	—	broad	dall	*th*ose
*	,, ,,		—	slender	diaṅ	cor*d*ial
*	E e	e	long	—	ṁé	d*a*te
	,, ,,		short	—	—	m*e*t
	F f	f	—	—	finṅ	*f*in
	G g	g	—	broad	gort	*g*ot
	,, ,,		—	slender	geir	*g*et, *g*imlet
	H h	h	—	—	a h-aṅaṁ	*h*ammer
	I i	i	long	—	mín	s*ee*n
	,, ,,		short	—	miṅ	p*i*n
*	L l	l	—	broad	lóṅ	*l*oné
	,, ,,		—	slender	file	vermi*l*ion
	M ṁ	m	—	—	mil	*m*ill
*	N n	n	—	broad	ṅóṙ	*n*one
	,, ,,		—	slender	ṅeaḋ	*n*ew
	O o	o	long	—	ṁóṙ	*m*ore
	,, ,,		short	—	doṙ	l*o*ve, r*u*n
	P p	p	—	—	poc	*p*ore
	R ṙ	r	—	broad	ṙóḋ	*r*oad
*	,, ,,		—	slender	cuirṙ	clar*i*on
	S s	s	—	broad	soṅa	*s*on
	,, ,,		—	slender	siṅ	*sh*een
*	T t	t	—	broad	tom	*th*umb
*	,, ,,		—	slender	teiṅe	cour*t*eous
	U u	u	long	—	múṙ	m*oo*r, r*u*de
	,, ,,		short	—	muc	p*u*t, b*u*ll

15. The following are the native names of the Irish letters, but they need not be used by the learner. All or most of them are the names of trees:—ailm, *a;* beiṫ, *b;* coll, *c;* daiṙ, *d;* eaḋa, *e;* feaṙṅ, *f;* gorṫ, *g;* uaṫ, *h;* ioga *i;* luiṙ, *l;* muiṅ *m;* nuiṅ, *n;* oiṙ or oṅṅ, *o;* peiṫ-bog, *p;* ruiṙ, *r;* saiḃ, *s;* teiṅe, *t;* úṙ *u.*

II. DIPHTHONGS.

1. There are thirteen diphthongs in the Irish language—viz., ae, ao, eu, ia, ua, ai, ea, ei, eo, io, iu, oi, ui; of which the first five are always long, and the remaining eight are sometimes long and sometimes short.

2. The following are the sounds of the five long diphthongs:—

3. ae, sounds like *ay* in *slay;* as ṗae, the moon, pronounced *ray.*

4. ao, in the southern half of Ir land, sounds nearly like *way,* and in the west and north-west something like *we.* Thus maoṁ, a steward, is pronounced like *mwair* in the south, and like *mweer* in the west and north-west.

5. eu like *ai* in *lair;* as in ṗeuṁ, grass, pronounced *fair.*

6. ia like *ee* in *beer;* as in ciaṁ, dark-colored, pronounced *keer.*

7. ua nearly like *oe* in *doer;* as in Luan, Monday, pronounced *l.o-an.*

8. The following are the sounds of the eight diphthongs that are sometimes long and sometimes short. When these diphthongs are long there is an accent over one of the vowels: when short there is no accent:—

9. ái long has an accent over the a, and sounds something like the *awi* in *drawing;* as in cáin, tribute, pronounced *caw-in.*

ai short is sounded something like the *a* in *valiant* or the *o* in *collier;* as in maiṫ, good, whose sound is very nearly represented by *moh.*

In Ulster, ai short is pronounced like short *e* in *bell;* as in aiṁioc, restitution, which is pronounced *eshoc* in the north, and *ashoc* in the south and west.

10. éa long has an accent over the e, and sounds like *ea* in *bear;* thus méaṁ, a finger, is pronounced *mare.*

ea short sounds like *ea* in *heart* (but shorter); as in ṗeaṙ, knowledge, pronounced *fass.*

11. éi long has an accent over the e, and sounds like *ei* in *rein;* as ṁéiṁ, a course, pronounced *raim.*

ei short, like *e* in *sell;* as in ceiṙ, a basket, sounded like *kesh.*

12. eó long has an accent over the o, and is sounded nearly like long English *o* with a slight sound of *y* before it; as in ceól, music, which will be correctly pronounced if a *k* sound is put before the word *yole*

eo short nearly like *u* in *shut,* with *y* before it; as in ḃeoċ, drink.

Note.—This diphthong is short in only a very few words.

13. ío long has an accent over the i, and sounds very like *ea* in *hear;* as in ṗíon, wine, pronounced *feen* or *fee-on.*

ɪo short, nearly like short *i;* as in mɪoɲɲ, myrrh, which has nearly the same sound as the first syllable of *mirror.*

14. ɪú long has an accent over the u, and has the same sound as the diphthongal English *u* in *tune;* as in ƿɪú, wortny, which is sounded exactly like *few.*

ɪu short is sounded like the *u* in *put,* with a *y* before it; as in ƿɪɪuċ, wet.

15. óɪ long has an accent over the o, and is sounded like the *owi* in *owing;* as in ƿóɪl, a while, pronounced *fó-il.*

oɪ short like the *o* in *love,* with a very short *i* at the end; as in ꞇoɪl, the will.

16. úɪ long, with an accent over the u, is sounded like *ooi* in *cooing;* as ɾúɪl, the eye, pronounced *soo-il.*

uí long, with an accent over the ɪ, has nearly the same sound as *we;* as in buíðe, yellow, which is pronounced *bwee.*

uɪ short is like the *ui* in *quill;* as in ƿuɪɾcóʒ, a lark, pronounced *fŵishoge.*

III. TRIPHTHONGS.

1. There are commonly reckoned five triphthongs, which are always long:—aoɪ, eoɪ, ɪaɪ, ɪuɪ, uaɪ.

2. aoɪ is sounded very like *we,* as in maoɲ, wealth, pronounced *mween.*

3. eoɪ is sounded like the *yoi* in the combination *yó-ing;* as in ƿeoɪl, flesh, which will be correctly pronounced if the sound of *f* is put before the combination *yó-il.*

4. ɪaɪ is sounded like *eei* in *seeing;* as lɪaɪʒ, a physician.

5. ɪuɪ like the *ewi* in *mewing;* as cɪuɪɲ, gentle.

6. uaɪ like *ooi* in *cooing;* as buaɪl, strike, which is sounded *boo-il.*

7. The preceding attempts to represent the sounds of the diphthongs and triphthongs are, in many cases mere approximations. The student must hear them pronounced; and in no other way is it possible to learn to sound them correctly.

IV. VARIOUS SOUNDS.

1. a and o before ɲ, ɲɲ, ll, or ɲʒ, in monosyllables, and often before ɲc and ɲc, are sounded in Munster like the *ou* in *fowl;* as caɲ, crooked, and coll, hazel, pronounced *cowm* and *cowl;* and ʒleaɲɲcáɲ, a small glen, pronounced *glounthaun;* and o before ð and ʒ has often the same sound; as ƿoʒlaɪɲ, learning, pronounced *fowlim.*

2. að and aʒ are often sounded like long English *i* in *fine;* as ɲaðaɾc, sight, pronounced *ry-ark;* laðaɾ, a fork, pronounced *lyre;* maðɲ, a breach, pronounced *mime.*

3 The termination aδ is pronounced in Connaught nearly the same as *oo:* thus bualaδ, striking, is pronounced *booloo* in Connaught, but *boola* in Munster.

4. In the combination δl, the δ is silent, and the whole is sounded like l or ll; as coδlaδ, sleep, pronounced *culla.*

5. In the combination lŋ, the ŋ is silent, and the whole is sounded like l or ll; as colŋa, of a body, pronounced *culla.*

6. In the combination δn, the δ is silent, and whole is sounded the same as n or nn; as céaδna, the same, pronounced *kaina.*

7. Final e is never entirely silent in Irish as it is in English; thus mínne, smoothness, is pronounced *meena.* In some situations it is very nearly silent in the modern language; as in croíδe, a heart, pronounced *cree.*

8. There are some Irish consonants which, when they come together in a word, do not coalesce in sound, so that when they are uttered a *very* short obscure vowel sound is heard between them.

This generally occurs in the case of two liquids, or a liquid and a mute. Thus lorg, a track, is pronounced so as to seem, to an ear accustomed to English, a word of two syllables; not *lurg*, but *lurrug.* Dealb, a shape, is sounded, not *dulv*, but *dilluv;* searb, bitter, is sounded *sharrav;* borb, proud, is pronounced *burrub;* colg, a sword, *cullug*, and so on. In Irish prosody, however, such words as these count as only one syllable.

In the English language no such difficulty exists in regard to most of these letters; they coalesce perfectly in sound, so that each of the above words would be a pure monosyllable.

CHAPTER II.

LETTER CHANGES.

I. ASPIRATION.

1. The term "aspiration" is used to express a certain change of sound suffered by some of the Irish consonants under certain grammatical conditions.

2. It is impossible to give a definition of aspiration that will correctly describe all the cases, inasmuch as the changes of sound vary in kind with the several consonants In most cases the change caused by aspiration is one from an *explosive* to a *continuous* sound.

3. There are nine consonants which can be aspirated, namely, b, c, d, f, g, m, p, r, s; these are called mutable or aspirable consonants; the others are called immutable. The aspiration is denoted either by placing a point over the consonant, as ċ; or by placing h after it, as ch.

4. The following are the sounds of the aspirated consonants so far as they can be represented by English letters:—

5. Bh or b is sounded sometimes like *v* and sometimes like *w*, and it often has a sound something between both; as a bean, his wife, pronounced *a van;* gabal, a fork, pronounced *gowal.*

6. Ch broad, has a guttural sound which is not represented in English; but it is heard in the pronunciation of the word *lough*, (Irish, loch,) a lake.

Ch slender (*i.e.*, joined with a slender vowel) has a less guttural sound than ch broad; as mhichill, folly, in which the ch sound is only a little more guttural than *h* in *mee-heel.*

7. Dh and gh have the same sound. When slender, they are sounded like initial *y* in English; as a gean, his love, pronounced *a yan.* Dh and gh broad have a guttural sound which cannot be represented by English letters, though it is something like initial *y* or initial *w;* it stands to the guttural sound of broad ch in the relation of flat to hard. Both these aspirated letters are silent at the end of a word; as fiadh, a deer, pronounced *fee a.*

But in south Munster the final gh is fully sounded, like *g* in *fig*; as Corcaigh (dative of Corcach, Cork), pronounced *curkig* in Munster, but *curkee* elsewhere.

8. Fh is always silent; thus a fhios, his knowledge, is pronounced *a iss;* an feadóg, the plover, pronounced *an addogue.*

9. Mh is very nearly the same as b, viz., like *v* or *w;* as a mhias, his dish, pronounced *a vee-as.*

10. Ph has the sound of *f*, as a phian, his pain, pronounced *a fee-an.*

11. Sh and ch are the same as *h;* as a shal, his heel, pronounced *a haul;* a chobar, his well, pronounced *a hubber.*

II. RULES FOR ASPIRATION.*

1. The possessive pronouns mo, my; do, thy; and a, his, as, pirate the first consonant of the next word: as mo bo, my cow; do cheann, thy head; a gort, his garden.

2. The article aspirates in the singular feminine, nominative and accusative;† as an bean, the woman. (See also page 23, paragraph 6, and page 24.)

---

* These rules cannot be fully understood without a knowledge of Etymology. It must be borne in mind that they apply only to the aspirable or mutable consonants.

† Irish nouns have no inflection for the accusative (or objective) case; but it is often convenient to speak of nouns in the accusative, by which is meant the case where the noun is the object of a transitive verb, or sometimes of a preposition.

3 The article aspirates in the genitive singular masculine; as ᴀŋ ġuɪɪɪᴛ, of the garden.

NOTE.—This rule and the preceding do not apply to the letter ʃ. (See, also, page 23, paragraph 6; and page 34.)

4. In compound words, the initial consonant of the second word of the compound is aspirated (with a few exceptions): thus from ceᴀŋŋ, a head, and bɪᴀᴛ, a garment, is formed ceᴀŋŋ-ḃɪᴀᴛ, head-garment, or canopy. (See also page 36, paragraph 2).

5. The interjections ᴀ and ᴏ, as signs of the vocative case, aspirate; as ᴀ ḟɪɪɪ, O man.

6. An adjective agreeing with a noun has its initial consonant aspirated when the noun is nominative singular feminine, or genitive singular masculine, or vocative singular of both genders; and, according to O'Donovan, in the nominative plural masculine, when the noun ends in a consonant; as bó ḃáŋ, a white cow; caɪᴛ ḃáɪŋ, of a white cat; ᴀ ḟɪɪɪ ṁóɪɪɪ, O great man; ᴀ ḃeᴀŋ ṡeɪṁ, O mild woman; caꝑaɪll ḃáŋᴀ, white horses. (ᴅ and ᴛ are sometimes excepted: see page 36.)

7. The initial consonant of a verb is aspirated (1) in the infinitive mood by the particles ᴅo and ᴀ; as ᴅo ᴅéᴀŋᴀᴅ, or ᴀ ᴅéᴀŋᴀᴅ, to do: (2), in the simple past tense, active voice; as ᴅo ṡeᴀʃ ʃé, he stood: (3) by the particles ní, not, and ṁá, if: as ní ḃeɪᴅ ʃí, she will not be; ṁá ṡeᴀʃᴀŋŋ ʃé, if he stands; (4), by the relative ᴀ, who, (expressed or understood); as ᴀŋ ᴛé ᴀ ḃuᴀɪleᴀʃ, the person who strikes. (See also pages 57 and 59.)

8. The simple prepositions, with some exceptions, aspirate the initial consonants of nouns: as ᴀɪɪɪ ḃáɪɪɪ, on top; ᴅo ṁullᴀċ, to a summit; ꝑᴀoɪ ġeᴀŋ, under affection.

III ECLIPSIS.

1. A consonant is said to be eclipsed, or to suffer eclipsis, when its sound is suppressed, and the sound of another consonant, which is prefixed to it, substituted: thus in ŋ-ᴅáŋ, ᴅ is eclipsed by ŋ, and the whole word is pronounced *nawn*, whereas ᴅáŋ is pronounced *dawn*. It is only at the beginning of words consonants are eclipsed.

2. The following eight consonants can be eclipsed:—b, c, ᴅ, ꝑ, ġ, ꝑ, ʃ, ᴛ; the others cannot. Between the eclipsing and the eclipsed letter there is usually placed a *hyphen*, as ṁ-báɪɪᴅ: but often they are put together without any separating mark, as bꝑoɪɪᴛ. Sometimes eclipsis is denoted by the doubling of the eclipsed letter; thus, ᴀ ᴛᴛᴀɪɪḃ is the same as ᴀ ᴅ-ᴛᴀɪɪḃ, their bull

3. Each consonant has an eclipsing letter of its own.

4. b is eclipsed by m; as a m-bárd, their bard, pronounced *a mawrd.*

5. C is eclipsed by g: as a g-coll, their hazel, pronounced *a gowl* or *a gull.*

6. O by n; as a n-dor, their bush, pronounced *a nuss.*

7. F by b (which itself sounds like *v* or *w*); as a b-fearann, their land, pronounced *a varran.*

8. G is eclipsed by n. But this is not a true eclipsis, for the resulting sound is not that of n, but the sound of English *ng*; thus a ngiolla, their servant, is pronounced *ang-illa.*

9. P is eclipsed by b; as a b-pian, pronounced *a bee-an.*

10. S is eclipsed by t, as an t-súil, the eye, pronounced *an too-il.*

11. T is eclipsed by d; as a d-tál, their adze, pronounced *a dawl.*

RULES FOR ECLIPSIS.*

1. The possessive pronouns plural—ár, our; bur, your; a, their; eclipse the initial consonant of the next word; as ár d-tigearna, our Lord; bur g-crann, your tree; a b-páirc, their field.†

2. The article eclipses the initial consonant of nouns in the genitive plural; as teach na m-bárd, the house of the bards; gort na g-capall, the field of the horses.

3. When a simple preposition is followed by the article and a noun in the singular number, the initial consonant of the noun is generally eclipsed; as air an m-bórd, on the table; ó'n b-fairrge, from the sea. (See page 34: see also Syntax.)

4. The initial consonant of a verb is eclipsed after the interrogative particles a, an, cá, nach; also after go, that; muna, unless; iar, after; dá, if; and after the relative a preceded by a preposition; as a m-beireann sé? Does he bear? an m-buaileann tú? Dost thou strike? cá b-fuil sí? Where is she? nach d-tuigeann tu? Dost thou not understand? go m-beannaighe Dia duit, may God bless thee: muna d-tuitfir, unless thou shalt fall; dá n-déarfainn, if I would say, an tír ann a d-tainic siad, the country into which they came.

---

* These rules apply of course only to those consonants that can be eclipsed. The rules for eclipsis, like those for aspiration, suppose a knowledge of Etymology.

† Rules 1, 2, 3, 4 do not apply to s. See for this letter Rule 5.

When a point beginning with [illegible] is preceded by the article, the [illegible] when the noun is nominative, [illegible] or genitive [illegible] and generally in the [illegible] of both genitive [illegible] [illegible] the freedom [illegible] the field of [illegible] [illegible] in the world. [illegible] is followed by [illegible] it is not eclipsed; [illegible] the valley of the thrush; [illegible] the [illegible] of the champion. (See pages [illegible] and [illegible].)

The following rule is usually given with the rules for [illegible]:—

[illegible] a word begins with a vowel, the letter [illegible] is generally pre- [illegible] in all cases where [illegible] would be [illegible] [illegible] their broad; [illegible] the [illegible] of [illegible]."

[illegible]

If a consonant, or any combination of consonants, come be- [illegible] two vowels, they must be either both slender or both broad; [illegible] that the [illegible] and [illegible] are both broad vowels, and in [illegible] the [illegible] and the [illegible] are both slender vowels. But [illegible] as [illegible] and [illegible] are not allowable, be- [illegible] the [illegible] and the [illegible] in the first case, and the [illegible] and the [illegible] in the [illegible] of [illegible] of them broad and the other slender.

In compliance with this rule, when two words, or a word [illegible], are joined together so that in the resulting word [illegible] or consonants combination would fall between two [illegible] one of them broad and the other slender, then either the [illegible] vowel must be made slender or the slender one broad, to [illegible] to an agreement.

Sometimes the broad vowel is changed to make it agree with [illegible] vowel; sometimes the slender vowel is made broad to [illegible] with the broad vowel; sometimes it is the vowel before the [illegible] that is changed; sometimes the change is made in the [illegible] after the consonant. A prefix is generally changed to suit [illegible] it is joined to not the reverse. Thus when [illegible] is pre- [illegible] standing, the word is [illegible], competition. [illegible]

Changing a broad vowel to a slender is called in Irish

[illegible] a very detailed and clear statement of the laws of aspiration [illegible] the Second Irish Book by the Society for the Preser- [illegible] of the Irish Language.

[illegible] rule is very generally but not universally followed in the [illegible] Language.

caoluʒaδ (*i.e.*, making slender, from caol, slender.) and in English *attenuation*; changing from slender to broad is called in Irish leaʒŋuʒaδ (*i.e.*, making broad, from leaʒon, broad).

5. Attenuation takes place chiefly in two ways:—first, by putting a slender vowel between the broad vowel and the consonant; as when ball, a spot, is changed to baill, spots; or when ꝼa is postfixed to buail, and the resulting word is buailꝼea, not buailꝼa: secondly, by removing the broad vowel which precedes or follows the consonant, and putting a slender vowel in its place; as when ceann, a head, is changed to cinn, of a head.

6. In like manner "making broad" takes place chiefly in two ways, which are the reverse of the two preceding.

7. The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules and remarks:—

8. When the future termination ꝼaδ is added to buail, the resulting word is not buailꝼaδ, but buailꝼeaδ, I shall strike.

9. When the infinitive termination aδ is added to buail, the resulting word is not buailaδ, but bualaδ.

10. When mór, great, is fixed to cion, love, the compound is not mórcion, but mórucion, great love.

11. When ceann, head, is prefixed to litin, a letter, the compound is not ceannlitin, but cinnlitin, a head letter, or capital letter. (This is a case of irregular attenuation.)

12. When the diminutive termination óʒ is added to cuil, the resulting word is not cuilóʒ, but cuileóʒ, a fly.

13. When e is added to onδóʒ, a thumb, to inflect it for the genitive, the word is not onδóʒe, but onδóiʒe, of a thumb.

14. When the diminutive termination íŋ is added to capall, a horse, the whole word is not capallíŋ, but capaillíŋ.

VI. SYNCOPE.

1. Syncope, or the omission of one or more letters from the body of a word, is very common in Irish.

2. When a short vowel occurs between a liquid (l, ŋ, n, or r,) and a mute, or between two liquids, the word is often syncopated when it is lengthened either by grammatical inflection or otherwise.

3. The syncope generally consists in the omission of the short vowel; but this change often involves others, in accordance with the rule caol le caol, &c.; and is often also accompanied by some slight consonantal changes

4. The following examples exhibit the chief types of syncope:—

5. lánamha, a married couple; plural lánamhna, contracted from lánamhana.

6. lasair, a flame; plural lasracha, contracted from lasarach.

7. Focal, a word; foclóir, a dictionary, contracted from focalóir.

8. Saibhir, rich; comparative saibhre, contracted from saibhire.

9. Cathair, a city; genitive cathrach, contracted from catharach.

10. Flaitheamhail, princely; comparative flaitheamhla, contracted from flaitheamhala.

11. Colann, the body; genitive colna, (sometimes colla), contracted from colanna.

12. Carn, genitive carnad: the plural is formed by adding e to this, which syncopates the second a: this would make carnde, which again, in accordance with the rule caol le caol, &c., is made carnde.

13. Uasal, noble, becomes uaisle in the comparative, by a process exactly similar to the last.

14. Follus, evident, becomes foilsre in the comparative in a similar way.

15. Abann, a river: the plural is formed by adding e; this causes syncope of the second a and the omission of one n, which would make the plural abne; and this again becomes aibhne, by the rule caol le caol, &c.

16. Labair, speak (imperative mood); labhraim, I speak, contracted from labairim.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

1. There are nine parts of speech in Irish, which are the same as those in English.

CHAPTER I.

THE ARTICLE.

I. CHANGE OF FORM IN THE ARTICLE.

1. The Irish language has one article, an, which has the same meaning as the English definite article *the*.

2. The article changes its form according to number, gender, and case.

3. In the singular number the article has the form an in all the cases except the genitive feminine, in which it becomes na; as caiſleán na cinnce, the castle of the hen.

In the plural number the article is always na.

4. In the spoken language the n of an is often omitted before a consonant; as ceann a tairb, the head of the bull. And this is sometimes found in books also, both printed and MS., but it is not recommended.

5. When an follows a preposition ending in a vowel, the a is often omitted in writing, but the omission is usually marked by an apostrophe; thus, ó an tír, from the land, is written ó'n tír; and fá an ngréin, under the sun, is written fá'n ngréin.

Very often in MSS., and sometimes in printed books, the apostrophe in such cases is omitted, and the n of the article joined with the preposition; as ón tír, fán ngréin.

6. In the plural the article (na) is often joined to the preposition; as donna, for do na.

7. The letter r is inserted between certain prepositions and the article an; and this occasionally leads to combinations that might puzzle a learner. Thus, ann an leabar, in the book, is written annr an leabar, and ir an leabar, which is still further shortened to ran leabar: also (omitting the n) annra leabar, and even ra leabar.

II. CHANGES PRODUCED BY THE ARTICLE.

1. The article produces certain changes in the initial letters of nouns to which it is prefixed.

2. These changes are very important, and the learner will obtain a clearer view of them by separating the singular from the plural. (For more on this subject see page 34.)

SINGULAR.

1. If the noun begins with an aspirable consonant (except ſ, ꞇ, ꝺ), the article aspirates in the nominative feminine, and in the genitive masculine; as aŋ ḃó, the cow; cuan aŋ ḟ|ɾ ṁó|ɾ, the harbor of the great man.

2. If the noun begins with ſ, followed by a vowel or by l, ŋ, or ɾ, the ſ is eclipsed by ꞇ in those cases where, according to the last rule, a mutable consonant would be aspirated; as aŋ ꞇ-ſál (fem.), the heel; aŋ ꞇ-ſɾón, (fem.), the nose; luaċ aŋ ꞇ-ſɾ|a|ŋ (masc.), the price of the bridle.

3. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes ꞇ to the nominative masculine, and ḥ to the genitive feminine; as aŋ ꞇ-aṫa|ɾ, the father; leaḃaɾ ŋa ḥ-u|ꝺ́ɾe, the book of the dun (cow).

4. If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant (except ꝺ or ꞇ), the article *generally* eclipses, if it be preceded by a simple preposition; as a|ɾ aŋ ʒ-cɾaŋŋ, on the tree; ó'ŋ ḃ-ꝼocal |beɾ, "from the word 'iber;'" le|ſ aŋ ḃ-ꝼeaɾ, with the man.

5. But after the prepositions ꝺo and ꝺe, the article aspirates oftener than it eclipses; as ce|ṫɾe cé|ṁe ꝺo'ŋ ċɾ|oſ, four degrees of the zone (Keating); ꝺo leaŋaꝺaɾ a ʒ-coſa ꝺo'ŋ ċaɾɾa|ʒ, their feet clung to the rock (story of the Children of Lir).

6. No change is produced by the article in the singular number, if the noun begins with l, ŋ, ɾ, ꝺ, ꞇ, or with ſ before a mute.

PLURAL.

1 If the noun begins with an eclipsable consonant, the article eclipses in the genitive; as |ŋ|ſ ŋa ḃ ꝼíoꝺḃaꝺ [the] island of the woods; ca|líŋ ꝺeaſ cɾú|ꝺ́ꞇe ŋa ṁ-bó [the] pretty girl of [the] milking of the cows (*i.e.*, the pretty milking girl).

2. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes ŋ to the genitive, and ḥ to the other cases; as ꞇíɾ ŋa ŋ-óʒ, the land of the young (people); ó ŋa ḥ-á|ꞇ|ḃ ſ|ŋ, from those places.

These are the only changes produced by the article in the plural.

CHAPTER II.

THE NOUN.

I. GENDER.

1. There are only two genders in the Irish language, the masculine and feminine: all Irish nouns, therefore, are either masculine or feminine gender.

2. In ancient Irish there was a neuter gender, but no trace of it remains in the modern language.

3. To know and remember the gender of all ordinary Irish nouns is one of the great difficulties in learning the language, as it is in learning French and many other languages. Without this knowledge, which can only be mastered by practice, no one can speak or write Irish correctly.

4. There are a few general rules which will very much help the learner to distinguish the gender of nouns: they are only *general* rules, however, subject to many exceptions; and where they do not apply, the student must depend on practice and memory.

MASCULINE.

1. The following nouns are generally masculine:—

(1.) Names of males; as coileach, a cock; laoch, a hero; fear, a man.

(2.) Nouns of more than one syllable, ending in a consonant, or two consonants, preceded by a broad vowel; as doilċeall, churlishness: except (*a*), derivatives in acht; (*b*), diminutives in óg.

(3.) Nouns ending in óir, aire, ach aibe (or oibe, or uibe), when they denote personal agents, as they generally do; as fealadóir, a mower; fealgaire, a hunter; ceiteamnach, a soldier—one of a body of *kerns;* fgéalaibe, or fgéulaibe, a story-teller.

(4.) Diminutives in án and abstracts in ar; as coleán, a whelp; cairdear, friendship.

(5) Diminutives in in are of the same gender as the nouns from which they are derived.

FEMININE.

2. The following nouns are generally feminine:—

(1.) Names of females; names of countries, rivers, and diseases; as ceanc, a hen; 'Eire, Ireland; Bearba, the Barrow; plag, a plague.

(2.) Diminutives in óg, and derivatives in acht; as fuiseóg, a lark; cumhracht, fragrance: and abstract nouns formed from the genitive feminine of adjectives; as dailles, blindness.

(3.) Nouns ending in a consonant, or two consonants, preceded by a slender vowel (except those in ó|ɼ); as ɾú|l, the eye; ƒóʒlu|ɱ, learning.

II. DECLENSIONS.

CASES.

1. Irish nouns have four cases, that is, four different inflections, to express relation:—Nominative, genitive, dative, and vocative.

2. The nominative case is the same as the nominative case in English.

3. The genitive is the same as what is called the possessive case in English.

4. The dative is the case where a noun is governed by a preposition.

5. The vocative case is the same as what is called the nominative of address in English.

6. Irish nouns have different forms for these four cases, and for no others. Thus, the four cases of bɼaδáɲ, a salmon, are, for the plural number, as follows:—Nom. bɼaδáɿɲ, as tɼí bɼaδáɿɲ, three salmons; gen. bɼaδáɲ, as loċ ɲa ɱ-bɼaδáɲ, the lake of the salmons; dat. bɼaδáɲaɿḃ, as δo ɲa bɼaδáɲaɿḃ, to the salmons; voc. bɼaδáɲa, as a ḃɼaδáɲa ca ḃ-ƒu|l ɾ|ḃ aʒ δul? "O ye salmons, whither are ye going?"

7. These four case are not always different in form; thus, the four cases of the same noun in the singular number are:—Nom. bɼaδáɲ; gen. bɼaδáɿɲ; dat. bɼaδáɲ; voc. ḃɼaδáɿɲ; in which it will be seen that the dative is the same as the nominative, and the vocative the same as the genitive.

8. Those cases which are alike in form are distinguished by the sense; just as the nominative and objective cases are distinguished in English.

9. Some writers on Irish grammar have put in two more cases, in imitation of Latin declension; the accusative (or, as it is called in English, the objective) and the ablative. But in Irish there are no separate inflections for them, the accusative being always the same in form as the nominative, and the ablative the same as the dative; so that it would be only a useless puzzle to the learner to include them in a statement of Irish declension. In certain explanations, however, and in the statement of certain rules, it is sometimes convenient to speak of the accusative case.

10. Different nouns have different inflections for the same case; thus the dative singular of coɾ, a foot, and δoɾ, a bush, are different, namely, coɿɾ and δoɾ. But though this variation extends

to most of the cases, the genitive singular is taken as the standard, in comparing the declension of one noun with the declension of another.

11. There are five chief ways of forming the genitive singular of Irish nouns; and in one or another of these ways, far the greatest number of nouns in the language form their genitive. There are usually reckoned, therefore, FIVE DECLENSIONS of Irish nouns.

12. Besides these there are genitive inflections, but as no one of them comprises any considerable number of nouns, it is not considered necessary to lay down more than five declensions. The number of declensions is, however, very much a matter of convenience; and, accordingly, in some Irish grammars, there are more than five, and in some less.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. The first declension comprises masculine nouns which have their characteristic vowel, that is, the last vowel of the nominative singular, broad.

2. The genitive singular is formed by attenuating the broad vowel.

3. In the singular, the dative is like the nominative, and the vocative is like the genitive; in the plural, the nominative is generally like the genitive singular, and the genitive like the nominative singular. Example, ball, a member, or limb.

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.*	ball.	Nom.	baill.
Gen.	baill.	Gen.	ball.
Dat.	ball.	Dat.	ballaiḃ.
Voc.	a ḃaill.	Voc.	a ḃalla.

4. The number of nouns that belong to this declension is very large; but though they all form their Genitive singular in the same way (except those in ac, in which there is a slight additional change, for which see next paragraph), there are a few which vary in the formation of other cases.

5. Nouns in ac, in addition to the attenuation, change ċ into ġ in the genitive singular; and generally form the nominative plural by adding e to the genitive singular; and from this again is formed the dative plural in aiḃ, in accordance with the rule in Par. 9, page 26. Example, marcac, a horseman.

---

* It would be well for the learner, when declining nouns, to call this "Nominative and Accusative" all through the declensions.

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.	mapcaċ.	Nom.	mapcaiġe.
Gen.	mapcaiġ.	Gen.	mapcaċ.
Dat.	mapcaċ.	Dat.	mapcaiġiḃ.
Voc.	a ṁapcaiġ.	Voc.	a ṁapcaċa.

6. A few nouns make their nominative plural by an increase in a; as ꝑeann, a pen; plur. ꝑeanna: and some of these are syncopated, as uḃall, an apple; plur. uḃla.

7. In a few nouns of this declension the nominative plural is formed by adding ta or ṫa to the nominative singular; as ꝑeól, a sail; nom. plur. ꝑeólta; dat. plur. ꝑeóltaiḃ; ṁúr, a wall; nom. plur. ṁúrṫa; dat. plur. ṁúrṫaiḃ.

8. In many words of one syllable belonging to this declension, the attenuation in the genitive singular causes considerable change in the vowel or diphthongal part of the word; thus, corp, a body; gen. cuirp; iarg, a fish; gen. éirg; neart, strength; gen. neirt or nirt; ꝑear, a man; gen. ꝑir; crann, a tree; gen. croinn; béal, a mouth; gen. béil or beoil.

The three following rules (9, 10, and 11) apply to all the declensions:

9. The dative plural ends in iḃ.

This iḃ correspond with the Latin dative and ablative termination *ibus* or *bus*. It is now hardly ever pronounced,* but it is nearly always retained in writing; just as in English, *gh*, which was formerly sounded as a guttural in such words as *plough*, *daughter*, is retained in writing, though it is no longer pronounced.

10. The dative plural is formed from the nominative plural whenever this latter differs from the genitive singular: otherwise from the nominative singular.

11. The vocative is always preceded by the particle a or ó, which aspirates the initial; as a ꝑir, O man; a ṁná, O women; ó Tiġearna, O Lord.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. The second declension comprises most of the feminine nouns in the language.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding e to the nominative. If the characteristic vowel is broad, it must be attenuated in accordance with the rule caol le caol, &c.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive singular by dropping the final e.

---

* This syllable is always sounded in the West and North of Ireland which is undoubtedly the rule, the other being the exception.

3. When the characteristic vowel is broad, the nominative plural is formed from the nominative singular by adding a; when the characteristic vowel is slender, by adding e.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular.

6. The vocative is usually the same as the nominative, and is accordingly omitted from the paradigm.

First example: seamróg, a shamrock.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. seamróg.	Nom. seamróga.
Gen. seamróige.	Gen. seamróg
Dat. seamróig.	Dat. seamrógaib.

Second example: péist, a worm, a beast.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. péist.	Nom. péiste.
Gen. péiste	Gen. péist.
Dat. péist.	Dat. péistib.

7. Nouns in ach when they belong to this declension, change the c to g in the genitive singular; thus, clairseach, a harp, is declined as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. clairseach.	Nom. clairseacha.
Gen. clairsigе.	Gen. clairseach.
Dat. clairsig.	Dat. clairseachaib.

8. There are many nouns belonging to this declension which depart from the general rule laid down in Par. 4, in forming their nominative plural.

9. Some, probably over fifty, form the nominative plural by adding *anna;* and these form the genitive plural by dropping the final a of this termination; thus, cúis, a cause; nom. plural, cúiseanna; gen. plural, cúiseann dat. plural, cúiseannaib.

10. Some form their nominative plural by adding acha: thus, obair, a work, and oráid, a prayer, make oibreacha and oráideacha in the nominative plural.

11. When the characteristic vowel is slender, it is often dropped in the genitive plural; as fuaim, a sound; gen. plural, fuam.

12. When the nominative plural takes te, the genitive plural is formed by adding ad; as coill, a wood; nom. plur. coillte: and genitive plural, as seen in Oileán na g-coilltead, the island of the woods (Keating).

13. There are other variations of the nominative and genitive plural; but they do not comprise any considerable number of nouns, and they must be learned by practice.

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Nouns belonging to the third declension are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. The genitive singular is formed by adding a to the nominative singular.

3. The vocative is like the nominative.

4. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding a or e.

5. The genitive plural is generally like the nominative singular. Example: clear, a trick or feat.

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.	clear.	Nom.	cleara.
Gen.	cleara.	Gen.	clear.
Dat.	clear.	Dat.	clearaib.

6. If the characteristic vowel is slender, it must be made broad in the genitive singular, in accordance with the rule caol le caol, &c.; as toil, the will, gen. tola.

7. Sometimes t or ṫ is introduced before the a of the genitive singular, which commonly causes other changes by syncope; as bodail, sleep; genitive codalta; buaidirt, trouble; genitive cuaidearṫa.

8. This is the case with verbal or participial nouns in ad, ead, and uġad, the genitives of which have the same form as their passive participles considered as verbs; and they are all commonly reckoned as belonging to this declension, though the genitive singular is formed in some by adding e, not a; as molad, praising; gen. molta; rinead, stretching; gen. rínte; caoluġad, making slender; gen. caoluiġṫe.

9. Nouns in aċt generally, and those in ear or ior, often, belong to this declension; as clirteaċt, dexterity; gen. clirteaċta; doilġior, sorrow; gen. doilġiora. But the greater number of those in ear or ior belong to the first declension; thus the last noun, doilġior, is often made doilġir in the genitive; and bronntanar, a gift, makes bronntanair.

10. There are forty or fifty nouns (many of them ending in in,) which form their genitive singular in aċ, and which are reckoned as belonging to this declension, though some writers arrange them under a separate declension; as caṫain, a city; gen. caṫnaċ; Teaṁain, Tara; gen. Teaṁnaċ; ġráin, hatred; gen. ġráṅaċ.

11. Those in in generally form their genitive as above; but aṫain, a father; máṫain, a mother; and bráṫain, a brother, form their genitive by dropping the final i:—gen. aṫan, máṫan, bráṫan.

12. Outside the general rule stated in Par 4 above, there is considerable variety in the formation of the nominative plural.

13. Those in ó|r generally make the nominative plural by adding |ḋe: as ſpealaḋó|r, a mower; nom. plur. ſpealaḋó|r|ḋe.

14. And these form the genitive plural variously; generally na ſpealaḋó|r|ḋ, but sometimes na ſpealaḋó|r, or na ſpealaḋóraċ.

15. Others form the nominative plural either like the genitive singular or by adding nna to it; as ſruṫ, a stream; gen. ſroṫa; nom. plur. ſroṫa, or ſroṫanna; ḋruim, a back; gen. ḋroma; nom, plur. ḋroma, or ḋromanna..

16. Those that add nna, form the genitive plural by omitting the a; as ſruṫ; gen. plur. ſruṫann.

17. Many nouns of this declension that end in n or l, form their plural by adding te or ta; as mó|n, a bog; gen. sing. móna; nom. plur. mó|nte.

18. And these generally form their genitive plural by adding aḋ, to the nominative plural; as mó|n; gen. plur. mó|nteaḋ.

19. Those that form their genitive singular in aċ (10) form the plural by adding a to this aċ; as laſa|r, a flame; gen. sing. laſraċ; nom. plur. laſraċa.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fourth declension end in vowels or in ín, and are some of them masculine and some feminine.

2. There is no inflection in the singular, all the cases being alike.

3. The nominative plural is generally formed by adding |ḋe or aḋa (with occasionally an obvious vowel change). Example, á|rne, a sloe.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. á|rne.	Nom. á|rn|ḋe.
Gen. á|rne.	Gen. á|rneaḋ.
Dat. á|rne.	Dat. á|rn|ḋ|ḋ.

4. Some form the plural by adding te or ṫe: as te|nne, a fire; nom. plur. te|nnte; ḋao|, a clown; nom. plur. ḋao|ṫe; and a|ṫne, a commandment, has nom. plur. a|ṫeanta.

5. These generally form the genitive plural, by adding ḋ or aḋ (not to the nominative singular, as in the model, but) to the nominative plural; as nom. plur. ḋao|ṫe, clowns; gen. plur. ḋao|ṫeaḋ.

6. Nouns ending in a|ḋe, u|ḋe, and a|re, generally belong to this declension; as ſcláḃu|ḋe, a slave; pío|ba|re, a piper.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

1. Nouns of the fifth declension are mostly feminine.

2. They generally end in a vowel; and they form their genitive by adding ŋ or ŋŋ, and occasionally ð or c.

3. The dative singular is formed from the genitive by attenuation.

4. The nominative plural is formed from the genitive singular by adding a.

5. The genitive plural is like the genitive singular.

Example, uɪɾa, a door-jamb.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. uɪɾa.	Nom. uɪɾaŋa.
Gen. uɪɾaŋ.	Gen. uɪɾaŋ.
Dat. uɪɾaiŋ.	Dat. uɪɾaŋaiḃ.

6. To this declension belong the proper names 'Eiɪe, Ireland; gen. 'Eiɪeaŋŋ, dat. 'Eiɪiŋŋ; Alba, Scotland; gen. Albaŋ, dat. Albaiŋ; Muiṁa, Munster; gen. Muiṁaŋ, dat. Muiṁaiŋ; and several others of less note.

7. Caɪa, a friend, is an example of the genitive in ð: nom. caɪa; genitive caɪað; dat. caɪaiḋ; nom. plur. cáiɪḋe.

8. There is a good deal of variety in the formation of the cases of nouns belonging to this declension, which can only be learned by practice.

IRREGULAR DECLENSION

1. Some nouns are irregular; that is, they are not inflected in accordance with any of the regular declensions.

2. The most important of the irregular nouns are*:—bean, a woman; bó, a cow; bɪú, a womb; caoɪa, a sheep; ceó, a fog; cnó, a nut; cú, a hound; Dia, God; lá, a day; mí a month; o or ua, a grandson. They are declined as follows—(the vocative is not given where it is like the nominative):—

Ḃean, *a woman, fem.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. bean.	Nom. mná.
Gen. mná.	Gen. ban.
Dat. mnaoi.	Dat. mnáiḃ.

Ḃó, *a cow, fem.*

Nom. bó.	Nom. bá.
Gen. bó.	Gen. bó.
Dat. buiŋ.	Dat. búaiḃ.

* For additional examples of declensions of nouns, both regular and irregular, see Appendix at the end of the book.

bpú, *a womb, fem.*

Nom. bpú.	Nom. bpoŋŋa.
Gen. bpuiŋŋe, or bpoŋŋ.	Gen. bpoŋŋ.
Dat. bpoiŋŋ.	Dat. bpoŋŋaiḃ.

Caopa, *a sheep, fem*

Nom. caopa.	Nom. caoiptʒ.
Gen. caopaċ.	Gen. caopaċ.
Dat. caopa.	Dat. caopċaiḃ.
Voc. a ċaopa.	Voc. a ċaopċa.

Ceó, *a fog, masc.*

Nom. ceó	Nom. ciaḋ
Gen. ciaċ or ceoiʒ.	Gen. ceó.
Dat. ceó	Dat. ceóċaiḃ.

Cŋó or cŋú, *a nut, masc.*

Nom. cŋó.	Nom. cŋá, cnai.
Gen. cŋó, cŋui.	Gen. cŋóḋ.
Dat. cŋó, cŋú.	Dat. cŋáiḃ.

Cú, *a hound, masc. or fem.*

Nom. cú.	Nom. coiŋ, cuiŋ, coŋa, or coiŋte.
Gen. coŋ.	Gen. coŋ.
Dat. coiŋ.	Dat. coŋaiḃ.

Dia, *God, masc.*

Nom. Dia.	Nom. Dée, Déiṫe.
Gen. Dé.	Gen. Dia, Déiṫeaḋ.
Dat. Dia.	Dat. Déiḃ, Déiṫiḃ.
Voc. a Dhe or a Dhia.	Voc. a Dhée or a Dhéiṫe.

Lá, *a day, masc.*

Nom. lá.	Nom. laeṫe.
Gen. lae.	Gen. laeṫeaḋ.
Dat. lá, ló.	Dat. laeṫiḃ.

Mí, *a month, fem.*

Nom. mí.	Nom. míora.
Gen. míṙ, míora.	Gen. míor.
Dat. mí, míṙ.	Dat. míoraiḃ.

Ó or ua, *a grandson, masc.*

Nom. ó, ua.	Nom. uí.
Gen. ŋ, uí.	Gen. ua.
Dat. o, ua.	Dat. iḃ, uiḃ.
Voc. a uí.	Voc. a uí.

DECLENSION OF THE ARTICLE WITH THE NOUN.

1. The initial changes produced by the article in the nouns to which it is prefixed have been set forth at page 22; these changes must be carefully observed in declining nouns with the article.

2. Twelve typical examples are here given, corresponding with the several cases mentioned in paragraphs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, page 22; and these examples include almost every possible variety. There is a good deal of difference of usage in the dative singular of nouns beginning with r.

3. The declension of the singular number only is given; the changes in the plural are so very simple (see page 22,) that they can present no difficulty.

4. Colg, a sword, masc. Nom. an colg; gen. an chuilg; dat. leir an g-colg (Par. 4, p. 22), or do'n cholg (Par. 5, p. 22).

5. Cailleach, a hag, fem. Nom. an chailleach; gen. na caillighe; dat. ó'n g-caillig, or do'n chailliġ.

6. Saoghal, the world, masc. Nom. an saoghal; gen. an t-saoghail; dat. ó'n saoghal, or do'n t-saoghal (Par. 5, p. 22).

7. Sabóid, the Sabbath, fem. Nom. an t-Sabóid; gen. na Sabóide; dat. ó'n Sabóid, or do'n t-Sabóid (Pars. 2 and 5, p. 22).

8. Slat, a rod, fem. Nom. an t-slat; gen. na slaite; dat. leir an slait, or do'n t-slait.

9. Sróil, satin, masc. Nom. an tsróil; gen. an t-sróil; dat. ó'n tsróil, or do'n t-sróil.

10. Asal, an ass, masc. Nom. an t-asal; gen. an asail; dat. ó'n asal.

11. Inis, an island, fem. Nom. an inis; gen. na h-inse; dat. do'n inis.

12. Leac, a stone, fem. Nom. an leac; gen. na leice; dat. do'n leic (Par. 6, page 22).

13. Dile, a deluge, fem. Nom. an dile; gen. na dileann; dat. do'n dilinn.

14. Sgeul, a story, masc. Nom. an sgeul; gen. an sgéil; dat ó'n sgeul.

15. Speal, a scythe, fem. Nom. an speal; gen. na speile; dat. leir an speil.

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE.

I. DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

1. In Irish the adjective changes its form according to the gender, case, and number of the noun.

2. Adjectives are declined in much the same manner as nouns; but they never take the inflection ɿḃ in the dative plural (though anciently they had this inflection like nouns); the dative plural of an adjective is like the nominative plural.

There are usually reckoned four declensions of adjectives.

4. The inflections of these four declensions follow those of the noun so closely, that when the noun is mastered the adjective presents no difficulty.

FIRST DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the first declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a broad vowel, as bán, white; ꝼlɿuċ, wet.

2. In the masculine gender (*i.e.*, when the adjective belongs to a masculine noun), they are declined the same as nouns of the first declension of the type of ball, except that the nominative plural always ends in a.

3. In the feminine gender adjectives are declined the same as nouns of the second declension of the type of ɾeaṁɿóʒ.

4. Both genders are alike in the plural. Example, bán, white.

	Singular.		Plural.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fem.	
Nom.	bán.	bán.	Nom.	bána.
Gen.	báɿn.	báɿne.	Gen.	bán.
Dat.	bán.	báɿn.	Dat.	bána.
Voc.	báɿn.	bán.	Voc.	bána.

SECOND DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the second declension are those that end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel.

2. In the singular, all the cases of both masculine and feminine are alike, except the genitive feminine, which takes e.

3. In the plural, both genders are alike, and all the cases except the genitive are formed by adding e; the genitive is like the nominative singular. Example, ṁíɿn, smooth, fine.

	Singular.		Plural.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Masc. and Fem.	
Nom.	ṁíɿn.	ṁíɿn.	Nom.	ṁíɿne.
Gen.	ṁɿn.	ṁíɿne.	Gen.	ṁíɿn.
Dat.	ṁíɿn.	ṁíɿn.	Dat.	ṁíɿne.
Voc.	ṁíɿn.	ṁíɿn.	Voc.	ṁíɿne.

THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the third declension are those that end in aṁaɿl, which has the same signification as the English postfix *like*:—bean, a woman; banaṁaɿl, womanlike, modest.

2. The two genders are always alike.

3. The four cases singular are alike except the genitive, which is formed by adding a, with a syncope.

4. In the plural, the genitive is the same as the nominative singular; and the other cases are the same as the genitive singular. Example, maiṙeamhail, graceful.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. maiṙeamhail.	Nom. maiṙeamhla.
Gen. maiṙeamhla.	Gen. maiṙeamhail,
Dat. maiṙeamhail.	Dat. maiṙeamhla.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

1. Adjectives of the fourth declension are those that end in vowels; as mórḋa, majestic.

2. They have no inflections, being alike in all cases, numbers, genders.

II. DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND ARTICLE WITH THE NOUN.

1. The rules for the aspiration of the initial consonants of adjectives agreeing with nouns are given at page 22; and these rules must be very carefully observed in declining nouns with adjectives.

2. It may be added here that ḋ and t sometimes resist aspiration, especially if they follow a noun ending in n. There is much variety of usage as to aspiration of adjectives in the dative singular.

3. When a noun is declined with both an adjective and the article, the initial of the adjective is generally eclipsed in the genitive plural (or takes n if it be a vowel).

4. Four typical examples are here given of the declension of the adjective with the noun (for the influence of the article, see page 22):—

An capall bán, *the white horse, masc.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. an capall bán.	na capaill bána.
Gen. an chapaill bháin.	na g-capall n-bán.
Dat. ón g-capall bán, or n-bán.	ón na capallaib bána.
Voc. a chapaill bháin.	a chapalla bána.

An ṙuiṙeóg beag, *the little lark, fem.*

Nom. an ṙuiṙeóg bheag.	na ṙuiṙeóga beaga.
Gen. na ṙuiṙeóige bige.	na b-ṙuiṙeóg n-beag.
Dat. ón b-ṙuiṙeóig big.	ón na ṙuiṙeógaib beaga.
Voc. a ṙuiṙeóg bheag.	a ṙuiṙeóga beaga.

An cnoc árd, *the high hill, masc.*

Nom. an cnoc árd.	Nom. na cnuic árda.
Gen. an ċnuíc áird.	Gen. na ʒ-cnoc n-árd.
Dat. ó'n ʒ-noc árd.	Dat. ó'na cnocaib árda.
Voc. a ċnuic áird.	Voc. a ċnoca árda.

An ḃó ḋuḃ, *the black cow, fem.*

Nom. an ḃó ḋuḃ.	Nom. na bá duḃa.
Gen. na bó duiḃe.	Gen. na m-bó n-duḃ.
Dat. do'n m-buin duiḃ.	Dat. do na búaiḃ duḃa.
Voc. a ḃó ḋuḃ.	Voc. a ḃa duḃa.

III. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Irish adjectives have three degrees of comparison, the same as English adjectives.

2. The positive is the simple form of the adjective; as árd, high; flaiṫeaṁail, princely.

3. The comparative and the superlative have the same form, which is that of the genitive singular feminine; as áirde, flaiṫeaṁla; and they are distinguished by prefixed particles, or by the context.

4. The comparative has generally the particle níor (or níora, or níra) prefixed, and it is usually followed by ná, than (spelled also ina and ioná); as tá an teaċ ro níor áirde ná an teaċ rin, this house is higher than that house; atá an laoċ úd níor flaiṫeaṁla ná an ríġ féin, "yonder champion is more princely than the king himself."

5. The superlative is often preceded by ir or ar, with the article expressed before the noun; as an fear ir flaiṫeaṁla ran tír, the most princely man in the country.

6. In the comparative, níor is omitted when the assertion or question is made by the verb ir in any of its forms, expressed or understood; as ba ḋuiḃe a ʒruaʒ ná an ʒual, "her hair was blacker than the coal;' ir ʒile rneaċta ná bainne, snow is whiter than milk; an feárr do ḋearḃraṫair ná ṫúra? is thy brother better than thou?

7. When the characteristic particles are not expressed, the construction generally determines whether the adjective is comparative or superlative; as an ealaḋan ir uairle ná filiḋeaċt, the art which is nobler than poetry; an ealaḋan ir uairle air biṫ, "the art which is the noblest in the world."

8. An adjective in the comparative or superlative is not inflected, all the cases being alike in form.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

1. The following adjectives are irregularly compared. There are a few others, but their departure from rule is so slight as not to require notice:—

2. Lıa is a comparative as it stands, signifying more (in number); but it has no positive, unless ıomḋa, or mórán (many), or some such word, be considered as such.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
beaʒ, little.	níor luʒa.	ır luʒa.
ꝼaḋa, long.	níor ꝼaıḋe, níor rıa	ır ꝼaıḋe, ır rıa.
ꝼurur, or urur, easy.	níor ꝼura, níor ura.	ır ꝼura, ır ura.
maıṫ, deaʒ, } good.	níor ꝼeárr.	ır ꝼeárr.
mınıc, often.	níor mıonca.	
mór, great.	níor mó.	ır mó.
olc, bad.	níor mearа.	ır mearа.
teıṫ, hot.	níor teó.	ır teó.

11. There are certain particles which, when prefixed to adjectives, intensify their signification; and in accordance with the rule in Par. 4, page 22, they aspirate the initials of the adjectives.

12. The principal of these are an, ꝼíor, ró, rár, úr: as maıṫ, good; an-ṁaıṫ, very good; ʒránna, ugly; ꝼíor-ʒránna, excessively ugly; mór, large; ró-ṁór, very large; láıdır, strong; rár-láıdır, very strong, &c.

IV. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. The following is a list of the most important of the numerals, both cardinal and ordinal.

For the influence of some of them in aspirating and eclipsing, and for other syntactical influences on the noun, see Syntax.

	Cardinal.		Ordinal.
1.	aon.	1st.	ċéaḋ.
2.	dó, ḋá.	2d.	dara.
3.	trí, teóra.	3rd.	trear.
4.	ceaṫaır, ceıṫre.	4th.	ceaṫraṁaḋ.
5.	cúıʒ.	5th.	cúıʒeaḋ.
6.	ré.	6th.	reırеaḋ.
7.	reaċt.	7th.	reaċtṁaḋ.
8.	oċt.	8th.	oċtṁaḋ.
9.	naoı.	9th.	naoṁaḋ.
10	deıċ.	10th.	deaċṁaḋ.
11	aon déaʒ.	11th.	aonṁaḋ déaʒ.
12	dó déaʒ, dá déaʒ.	12th.	dara déaʒ.
13	trí déaʒ.	13th.	trear déaʒ.
	And so on, up to and including 19.		

	Cardinal.		Ordinal.
20.	ꝼiċe.	20th.	ꝼiċeaḋ.
21.	aoŋ a'ꝛ ꝼiċe, aoŋ aiꝛ ḟiċiḋ, And so on, up to 29.	21st.	aoŋṁaḋ aiꝛ ḟiċiḋ.
30.	tꝛioċaḋ, tꝛioċa, deiċ a'ꝛ ꝼiċe.	30th.	tꝛioċaḋaḋ, deaċṁaḋ aiꝛ ḟiċiḋ.
33.	tꝛí aiꝛ tꝛioċaiḋ, tꝛí déaʒ a'ꝛ ꝼiċé.	33d.	tꝛeaꝛ aiꝛ tꝛioċaiḋ, tꝛeaꝛ déaʒ aiꝛ ḟiċiḋ.
40.	ḋá ḟiċiḋ, ceaṫꝛaċa, ceaṫꝛaċaḋ.	40th.	ceaṫꝛaċaḋaḋ.
50.	caoʒa, caoʒaḋ.	50th.	caoʒaḋaḋ.
60.	ꝛeaꝛʒaḋ, ꝛeaꝛʒa, tꝛí ꝼiċiḋ.	60th.	ꝛeaꝛʒaḋaḋ, tꝛí ꝼiċiḋeaḋ.
70.	ꝛeaċtṁoʒ̇a, ꝛeaċtṁoʒ̇aḋ, deiċ a'ꝛ tꝛí ꝼiċiḋ.	70th.	ꝛeaċtṁoʒ̇aḋaḋ, deaċṁaḋ aiꝛ ṫꝛí ꝼiċiḋ.
80.	oċtṁoʒ̇a, oċtṁoʒaḋ, ceiṫꝛe ꝼiċiḋ.	80th.	oċtṁoʒ̇aḋaḋ, ceiṫꝛe ꝼiċiḋeaḋ.
90.	ŋoċa, ŋoċaḋ, deiċ a'ꝛ ceiṫꝛe ꝼiċiḋ.	90th.	ŋoċaḋaḋ, deaċṁaḋ aiꝛ ċeiṫꝛe ꝼiċiḋ.
100.	céaḋ.	100th.	céaḋaḋ.
1,000.	ɱíle.	1,000th.	ɱíleaḋ.
2,000.	ḋá ṁíle.	2 000th.	ḋá ṁíleaḋ.
1,000,000.	ɱilliúŋ.	1,000,0000th.	ɱilliúŋaḋ.

2 Ḋó and ceaṫaiꝛ are used only in the absence of nouns, *i.e.*, merely as the names of the numbers; but ḋá and ceiṫꝛe are always used when the nouns are expressed; as ḋá ċluaiꝛ, two ears; ceiṫꝛe ꝼiꝛ, four men.

3. Ꝼiċe is declined:—Nom. ꝼiċe; gen. ꝼiċeaḋ; dat. ꝼiċiḋ; nom. plur. ꝼiċiḋ.

4. Céaḋ has gen. céiḋ; nom. plural, céaḋa, or céaḋta.

5. The following nouns, which are all, except beiꝛt, formed from the numerals, are applied to persons only:—

ḋíaꝛ, ḋíꝛ,	two persons.	ꝛeaċtaꝛ, ɱóꝛ ṙeiꝛeaꝛ,	seven persons.
beiꝛt,	a couple.	oċtaꝛ,	eight "
tꝛiúꝛ,	three persons.	ŋoŋḃaꝛ, ŋaoŋḃaꝛ,	nine "
ceaṫꝛaꝛ,	four "	deiċŋeaḃaꝛ,	ten "
cúiʒeaꝛ,	five "		
ꝛeiꝛeaꝛ,	six "		

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRONOUN.

1. There are in Irish six kinds of pronouns:—Personal, Possessive, Relative, Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Indefinite.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. There are four personal pronouns—mé, I; tú, thou; sé, he; sí, she; with their plurals, sinn, we; sibh ye or you; and siad, they. These are the simple forms of the personal pronouns.

2. Each of these takes an emphatic increase or postfixed syllable, equivalent to the English word *self*; and the whole word thus formed is called the emphatic form. The emphatic syllables vary their vowel part in accordance with the rule caol le caol, &c.

3. The following are the emphatic forms:—Mise, or mise, myself; túsa, thyself; séasan, himself; sise, herself; sinne, ourselves; sibhse, yourselves; siadsan, themselves.

4. The word féin, self, is often added to the personal pronouns, not as a particle but as a separate word; and it is still more emphatic than the particles mentioned in last paragraph:—mé féin, I myself; sí féin, she herself.

5. The personal pronouns are all declined; and they may carry the emphatic increase through all the cases.

6. The personal pronouns (except mé), unlike nouns, have a distinct form for the accusative (or objective) case. It is, of course, only the pronoun tú that is used in the vocative.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The declension of the emphatic form of mé is given as an example: observe, in this, the vowel changes in obedience to caol le caol, &c.

Mé, *I.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. mé, I.	Nom. sinn, we.
Gen. mo, mine.	Gen. ár, our.
Dat. dom, dam, to me.	Dat. dúinn, to us.
Acc. mé, me.	Acc. inn or sinn, us.

Mise, *myself* (*emphatic form*).

Nom. mise, mise, myself.	Nom. sinne, ourselves.
Gen. mo-sa, my own.	Gen. ár-ne, our own.
Dat. domsa, damsa, to myself.	Dat. dúinne, to ourselves.
Acc. mise, mise, myself.	Acc. inne, sinne, ourselves.

Tú, *thou.*

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. tú,	Nom. sibh.
Gen. do.	Gen. bhur, bhar.
Dat. duit.	Dat. daoibh, dibh.
Acc. tú.	Acc. ibh, sibh.
Voc. tú.	Voc. sibh, ibh.

Sé, *he.*

Nom. sé.	Nom. siad.
Gen. a.	Gen. a.
Gat. do.	Dat. dóibh.
Acc. é.	Acc. iad.

Sí, *she.*

Nom. sí.	Nom. siad.
Gen. a.	Gen. a.
Dat. di.	Dat. dóib.
Acc. í.	Acc. iad.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS.

1. In Irish, the personal and the possessive pronouns unite with prepositions, each compound forming a single word.

2. In each case the preposition and the pronoun are amalgamated, and the latter changes its form, so as to be considerably, and, in some cases, completely disguised.

3. These "prepositional pronouns," as they are sometimes called, are of constant occurrence in the language—scarce a sentence in which they are not met with: they are therefore of great importance, and the learner should get them all off by heart.

4. The following prepositions unite with personal pronouns:—ag; ail or ar; ann or i; ar; chum; de; do; eidir or idir; fá or faoi; le; o or ua; roimh; reach; tar; thié; uait; um or im.

5. The following are the combinations of these prepositions with the personal pronouns.

6. The emphatic particles may be used with these combinations also, as well as with the uncompounded pronouns, of which one example is given:—

Ag, *at or with.*

Singular.	Plural.
agam, with, or at me.	againn, with us.
agat, agad, with thee.	agaibh, with you.
aige, with him.	acu or acu, with them.
aice or aici, with her.	

The same with the emphatic increase.

Singular.	Plural.
agamra, with myself.	againne, with ourselves.
agatra, with thyself.	agaibre, with yourselves.
aigeread, with himself.	acaran, with themselves.
aicire, with herself.	

Air or ar, *upon.*

orm, on me.	ormain, on us.
ort, on thee.	ormaib, on you.
air, on him.	orra, orcha, on them.
uirre, on her.	

Ann or i, *in.*

ionnam, in me.	ionnainn, ionainn, in us.
ionnat, ionnad, in thee.	ionnaib, in you.
ann, in him.	ionnta, in them.
innte, innti, in her.	

Ar, *out of.*

aram, out of me.	arainn, out of us.
arat, arad, out of thee.	araib, out of you.
ar, out of him.	arta, artu, out of them.
airte, airti, out of her.	

Chum, *towards, unto.*

chugam, unto me.	chugainn, unto us.
chugat, unto thee.	chugaib, unto you.
chuige, unto him.	chuca, unto them.
chuici, unto her.	

De, *from or off.*

díom, off or of me.	dínn, off us.
d'ót, off thee.	díb, off you.
de, off him.	díob, off them.
di, off her.	

Do, *to.*

dam, dom, dath, to me.	dúinn, to us.
duit, to thee	daoib, díb, to you.
dó, to him.	díbh, to them.
di, to her.	

Eidir, *between.*

eadram, between me.	eadrainn, between us.
eadrat, between thee.	eadraib, between you.
eidir é, between him.	eatorra, between them.
eidir í, between her.	

Fá or faoi, under.

Singular.	Plural.
fúm, under me.	fúinn, under us.
fút, under thee.	fúib, under you.
faoi, under him.	fúṫa, under them.
fúite, under her.	

Le, *with.*

liom, with me.	linn, with us.
leat, with thee.	lib, with you.
leis, with him.	leó, with them.
léiṫe, léi, with her.	

Le is often written re in books, and its pronominal combinations in this form are often met with. They are as follows:—

riom, with me.	rinn, with us.
riot, with thee.	rib, with you.
ris, with him.	riu, with them.
ria, with her.	

O or ua *from.*

uaim, from me.	uainn, from us.
uait, from thee.	uaib, from you.
uaḋ, from him.	uaṫa, from them.
uaiṫe, uaiṫe, from her.	

Roiṁ, before.

róṁam, before me.	róṁainn, before us.
roṁat, before thee.	róṁaib, before you.
róiṁe, before him.	róṁpa, before them.
róimpe, róiṁpi, before her.	

Seaċ, *beside.*

seaċam, beside me.	seaċainn, beside us.
seaċat, beside thee.	seaċaib, beside you.
seaċ e, beside him.	seaċa, beside them.
seaċ í, beside her.	

Tar, *beyond, over.*

ṫorm, ṫarm, over me.	ṫorrainn, ṫarrainn, over us.
ṫort, ṫart, over thee.	ṫorraib, ṫarraib, over you.
ṫairis, over him.	ṫarsta, ṫarsa, over them.
ṫairste, ṫairsi, over her.	

Tre, *through.*

tríom, through me.	trínn, through us.
tríot, through thee.	tríb, through you.
tríd, through him.	tríoṫa, through them.
tríṫe, tríṫi, through her.	

Uaṙ, *above.*

Singular.	Plural.
uaṙaṁ, above me.	uaṙaɪṁṁ, above us.
uaṙac, above thee.	uaṙaɪḃ, above you.
uaṙa, above him.	uaṙca, above them.
uaɪṙce, uaɪṙcɪ, above her.	

Um or ɪṁ, *about.*

amam, about me.	umaɪṁṁ, about us.
umac, about thee.	umaɪḃ, about you.
uɪme, about him.	umṗa, about them.
uɪmṗe, uɪmṗɪ, about her.	

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The possessive pronouns, which are merely the genitives of the personal pronouns, are as follows:—mo, my; do, thy; a, his or her; ár, our; bar or buɪṙ, your; a, their. The three possessives, a, his, a, her, and a, their, are distinguished by the initial letter changes of the next word. (See pages 14, 16, 17; see also Syntax.)

2. The o of mo and do is omitted before a vowel or before ṗ; as m'athaɪṙ, my father; m'ṗeaṙann, my land. And do is often changed, before a vowel, to t, d, and h; as t'athaɪṙ, d'athaɪṙ, or h-athaɪṙ, thy father.

3. The possessive pronouns also take the emphatic increase, with this peculiarity, however, that the emphatic particle always follows the noun that comes after the possessive, or if the noun be qualified by one or more adjectives, the emphatic particle comes last of all; and, in accordance with the rule caol le caol, its vowel is generally broad or slender according as the last vowel of the word it follows is broad or slender; as mo ċeaċ-ṙa, my house, or my own house; mo ċeaċ mór buɪḋe-ṙɪ, my great yellow house. And these again may be followed by ṗéɪn, (Par. 4, page 38), rendering the expression still more emphatic; as mo ċeaċ-ṙa ṗéɪn, my own house.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS.

1. The possessive pronouns are amalgamated with prepositions, much in the same way as the personal pronouns; as beaṙ beaṙnaċt óm ċroɪḋe, bear a blessing *from my* heart.

2. The following are the most important of these combinations:—

Ann, *in.*

Singular.	Plural.
am, am', in my.	ṙnáṙ, 'náṙ, in our.
ad, ad', in thy.	—
ɪonna, ɪna, 'na, in his or her,	ɪona, ɪna, 'na, in their.

Do, *to.*

Singular.	Plural.
dom, dom', to my.	dár, d'ár, to our.
dod, dod', to thy.	—
dá, d'a, to his or her.	dá, d'a, to their.

Le, *with.*

lem, lem', with my.	ler, le'r, with our.
led, led', with thy.	—
lena, le n-a, with his or her.	lena, le n-a, with their.

O or ua, *from.*

óm, óm', from my.	oár, ó'r, from our.
ód, ód', from thy.	—
óna, ó n-a, from his or her.	óna, o na, from their.

3. Those that are identical in form and different in meaning are distinguished by the initial letter changes they produce in the next word; as óna ṫiġ, from his house; óna tiġ, from her house; óna d-tiġ, from their house.

4. These combinations can also take the emphatic increase, like those of the personal pronouns, with the peculiarity, however, noticed in Par. 3, above; as óm ṫiġ mór árd-sa, from my great high house.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are three relative pronouns in Irish:—a, who, which, that; noċ, who, which, that; naċ, which not; as an té a ḃuaileas, the person who strikes; an liaiġ noċ a deir go ḃ-fuil tú slán, the physician that says that you are well; an té noċ ḃ-fuil láidir, ní fuláir dó ḃéiṫ glic, "the person who is not strong, it is necessary for him to be wise."

2. Dá sometimes takes the place of the relative a; and in some grammars it is counted as a distinct relative pronoun; as táid na gaolta is feárr agum dá ḃ-fuil a d-talaṁ 'Eireann, "I have the best friends *that are* (to be found) in the land of Erin." And sometimes do stands for the relative a.

3. The relative a has sometimes the sense of "all which" or "all that;" as beir beannaċt ċum a maireann de ṙiolraiċ Ir a's Eiḃir, "bear a blessing to *all that* live of the seed of Ir and Eber;" a ḃ-fuil san talaṁ d'aicme Wháine, "*all that* are in the land of the tribe of Maine."

4. The relative pronouns are not declined.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns are so, this, these; sin, that, those; súd or úd, yonder; as an fear so, this man; na mná sin, those women; súd í síos, "yonder she (moves) below."

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. There are usually reckoned three interrogative pronouns:—cıa or cé, who? cá, what? where? cad or cpeud, what? as cıa ċpuṫaıʒ ṫú? who created thee? cad deıp tú? what sayest thou? ca b-fuıl an fear yın? where is that man? cpeud ır éıʒın? what is necessary?

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The following are the principal indefinite pronouns:—

aon, one.	ceaċtap, either.
éıʒın, some, certain.	uıle, all.
eıle, oıle, other.	a ċéıle, each other.
cáċ, all.	an té, an tí, the person who.
ʒaċ, each, every.	cıa b'é, cıbé, ʒıbé, whoever.
ʒaċ uıle, every.	

2. The indefinite pronouns are not declined; except cáċ, which has a genitive form, cáıċ; and ʒaċ, which is sometimes made ʒaċa in the genitive.

CHAPTER V.

THE VERB.

1. Irish verbs are inflected for number, person, mood, tense, and voice.

2. The conjugation is arranged, not according to the initial changes, but according to terminations.

3. As to the initial changes:—See pages 15 and 55 for the particles that aspirate, and page 17 for the particles that eclipse, the initials of verbs.

I. PERSONS: SYNTHETIC AND ANALYTIC FORMS.

1. The verb has three persons singular and three persons plural; and it has inflections for the whole six in the indicative and conditional moods of the active voice, except in one tense of the indicative.

2. The six forms of the present tense, indicative mood, active voice, of the verb tóʒ, take, are as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
1. tóʒaım, I take.	1. tóʒamaoıd, we take.
2. tóʒaıp, thou takest.	2. ṫóʒṫaoı, ye take.
3. tóʒaıḋ yé, he takes.	3. tóʒaıd, they take.

3. This is what is called the synthetic form of the verb. The synthetic form is that in which the persons are expressed by inflections or terminations.

4. These six forms express the sense perfectly, without the accompaniment of the pronouns (except in the case of the third person singular): that is tóɣaɪll, as it stands, without using along with it the pronoun tú, thou, expresses perfectly "thou takest;" and so of the others.

5. But there is another way of expressing the persons, singular and plural, namely, by using one form of the verb for the whole six, and putting in the pronouns to distinguish the persons and numbers. This is what is called the analytic form of the verb.

6. In this analytic mode of expressing the persons and numbers, the form of the verb that is used is the same as the form for the third person singular; and the persons, singular and plural, are expressed as follows:—

1. tóɣaɪð mé, I take.	1. tóɣaɪð rɪn, we take.
2. tóɣaɪð tú, thou takest.	2. tóɣaɪð rɪb, ye take.
3. tóɣaɪð ré, he takes.	3. tóɣaɪð rɪad, they take.

7. The third singular of the verb is not a synthetic form like the other five, that is, it does not include the pronoun as they do. In the third person singular, therefore, the pronoun must be always expressed in order to distinguish the number and person; unless there is a noun, or that the nominative is in some other way obvious from the construction.

8. But generally speaking it is not allowable to express any other pronoun along with the corresponding synthetic form of the verb:—For example, it would be wrong to say déanaɪn mé or déanamaoid rɪnn, both expressions being tautological.

9. This rule, in the case of the third person plural, however, is sometimes not observed; for such expressions as molaid ríad and molfaid ríad—they praise, they will praise—are often met with, though molaid or molfaid alone would answer. And a like construction (in the third plural) is often used when the nominative is a plural noun, both in the present and in the past tense; as cɪllallaid mic Mɪleaḋ, "the sons of Milé go; nair do conċadair na druiḋe, "when the druids saw."

10. The emphatic particles may be postfixed to all the persons of verbs, in the same manner as to pronouns and nouns (p. 38); as molaim-re, I praise; molaill-re, thou praisest. And in all such cases, the word féin (p. 38) may be used to make the expression still more emphatic; as do ċuillfinn-re féin mo leanḃ a ċoḋlaḋ, "I myself would put my child to sleep."

11. The general tendency of modern languages is to drop synthetic forms, and to become more analytic. The English language, for example, has lost nearly all its inflections, and supplied their place by prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, and auxiliary verbs. Following this tendency, the synthetic forms of the Irish verb are falling into disuse in the spoken language; and it has been already

remarked (page 26) that the noun-inflection ıb is no longer used in speaking.* But all these forms are quite common in even the most modern Irish books; and the learner must, therefore, make himself quite familiar with them.

II. TENSES.

1. In English a regular verb has only two different forms to express tense:—I love, I loved; all the other tenses are expressed by means of auxiliaries.

2. In Irish, a regular verb has five different forms in the indicative mood for tense. Reckoning those tenses only which are expressed by inflection, an Irish regular verb has therefore FIVE TENSES in the indicative mood.

3. The five tenses, with the synthetic forms for the first person singular of the regular verb ȝoıll, call, are:—

(1.) The present; ȝoıllıṁ, I call.

(2.) The consuetudinal or habitual present; ȝoılleann mé, I am in the habit of calling.

(3.) The past, or simple past, or perfect (for it is known by all these three names); do ȝoılleas, I called.

(4.) The consuetudinal or habitual past; do ȝoıllınn, I used to call, or I used to be calling.

(5.) The future; ȝoıllfead, I shall or will call.

III. MOODS AND VOICES.

1. The Irish regular verb has four moods:—The Imperative, the Indicative, the Conditional, and the Infinitive. These are the only moods for which the regular verb has distinct inflections.

2. There are, indeed, other moods, which are expressed, not by inflection, but by means of certain conjunctions and particles set before the verb; and these additional moods are given in conjugation in some Irish grammars; but as their forms do not differ from the forms of the five given above, they are not included here.

3. It is only the indicative mood of the verb that has tense inflection; in each of the other moods there is only one tense.

4. There are two voices, the active and the passive. It is only in the active voice that there are personal inflections; in the passive voice, the three persons singular and the three persons plural have all six the same form, rendering it necessary, of course, that the pronoun be always expressed when there is no noun.

---

* This is true only in certain parts of Ireland; in Connaught it is very generally pronounced.

IV. CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

bualʃ, *strike.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. bualʃmʃr, let us strike.
2. bualʃ, strike thou.	2. bualʃʃð, strike ye.
3. bualeað ře, let him strike.	3. bualʃðʃr, let them strike.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. bualʃm, I strike.	1. bualʃmʃð, we strike.
2. bualʃn, thou strikest.	2. bualtʃ, ye strike.
3. bualʃð ře, he strikes.	3. bualʃð, they strike.

Consuetudinal or Habitual Present.

bualeaŋn mé, *I usually strike.*

(*The same form for all persons and numbers.*)

Past.

1. bualeaṙ, I struck.	1. bualeamaṙ, we struck.
2. bualʃr, thou struckest.	2. bualeabaṙ, ye struck.
3. bualʃ ře, he struck.	3. bualeadaṙ, they struck

Consuetudinal Past.

1. bualʃnn, I used to strike.	1. bualʃmʃr, we used to strike.
2. bualtċeá, thou usedst to strike.	2. bualtʃ, ye used to strike.
3. bualeað ře, he used to strike.	3. bualʃðʃr, they used to strike.

Future

1. bualfeað, I will strike.	1. bualfeamʃð, we will strike.
2. bualfeṙn, thou wilt strike.	2. bualfeʃð, ye will strike.
3. bualfeʃð ře, he will strike.	3. bualfeʃð, they will strike.

(*For the relative form of this tense, see page* 49).

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

1. bualfeʃnn, I would strike.	1. bualfeʃmʃr, we would strike.
2. bualfeá, thou wouldst strike.	2. bualfeʃð, ye would strike.
3. bualfeað, ře, he would strike.	3. bualfeʃðʃr, they would strike.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Do bualaḋ, *to strike.*

PARTICIPLE.

Ag bualaḋ, *striking.*

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

(*The same as the Indicative Present.*)

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. buailtear mé, I am struck.	1. buailtear muid or mid, we are struck.
2. buailtear tú, thou struck.	2. buailtear sibh or sib, ye are struck.
3. buailtear é, he is struck.	3. buailtear iad, they are struck.

Consuetudinal Present.

(*Same as the Indicative Present.*)

Past.

1. buaileaḋ mé, I was struck.	1. buaileaḋ muid or mid, we were struck.
2. buaileaḋ tú, thou wast struck.	2. buaileaḋ sibh or sib, ye were struck.
3. buaileaḋ é, he was struck.	3. buaileaḋ iad, they were struck.

Consuetudinal Past.

1. buailtí mé, I used to struck.	1. buailtí muid or mid, we used to be struck.
2. buailtí tú, thou usedst to be struck.	2. buailtí sibh or sib, ye used to be struck.
3. buailtí é, he used to be struck.	3. buailtí iad, they used to be struck.

Future.

1. buailfear mé, I shall or will be struck.	1. buailfear muid or mid, we shall or will be struck.
2. buailfear tú, thou shalt or wilt be struck.	2. buailfear sibh or sib, ye shall or will be struck.
3. buailfear é, he shall or will be struck.	3. buailfear iad, they shall or will be struck.

Conditional Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1. b̈uaɪlfíd̈e mé, I would be struck.	1. b̈uaɪlfíd̈e rɪnn or ɪnn, we would be struck.
2. b̈uaɪlfíd̈e ċú, thou wouldst be struck.	2. b̈uaɪlfíd̈e rɪb̈ or ɪb̈, ye would be struck.
3. b̈uaɪlfíd̈e é, he would be struck.	3. b̈uaɪ́lfíd̈e ɪad, they would be struck.

Infinitive Mood.

Do b̈eɪt buaɪlte, *to be struck.*

Participle.

buaɪlte, *struck.*

IV. RELATIVE FORM OF THE VERB.

1. Besides the forms given in the preceding conjugation, the verb has what is called a "relative form," *i.e.*, a form used after a relative pronoun. In two of the tenses of the indicative mood, namely, the present and the future, the relative form has a distinct inflection, viz., ar, ear, or ɪor.

2. For instance, "the person who calls," is translated, not by an té a ġoɪrɪd̈ (3rd singular form), but by an té a ġoɪrear; and "he who will steal," is not an té a ġoɪdfíd̈ (3rd singular form), but an té a ġoɪdfear. In other tenses and moods the relative form is the same as that of the third person singular.

3. This form of the verb is often used even when its nominative is not a relative, but a noun or personal pronoun, to express the "historical present," *i.e.*, the present tense used for the past; as fɪafraɪġear Aɪṁɪrgɪn a h-aɪnm d̈ɪ, "Amergin *asks* her name of her." (See for a further account of the historical present, p. 50)

4. And not unfrequently the relative form is used as an ordinary present; as, Ɪr mór an t-ɪongna lɪomra, naċ d'Oɪsín ɪarrar Fɪonn mɪre, "It is a great wonder to me that it is not for Oisin Finn *seeks* (ɪarrar) me."

3

V. FORMATION AND USES OF THE MOODS AND TENSES OF REGULAR VERBS.

1. The second person singular of the imperative mood, active voice, is the root or simplest form of the verb, from which all the other persons, moods, and tenses are formed directly, by affixing the various terminations.

2. Verbs which end in a consonant preceded by a slender vowel have all their inflections precisely alike those of buaɪl (with the exception mentioned in Par. 4, page 52); and they all begin with a slender vowel (except sometimes that of the infinitive) in accordance with the rule caoll e caol, &c.

3. But when the final consonant is preceded by a broad vowel, the synthetic terminations begin with a broad vowel, in accordance with the same rule. A table of the full conjugation of a regular verb, ending in a broad vowel, is given at page 55.

4. The root generally remains unchanged through all the variations of the verb, except that it occasionally suffers a trifling change in the infinitive. The cases in which the root suffers change in the infinitive are mentioned in Par. 4, page 51. See also Par. 8, page 53.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

1. The present tense is formed by affixing the six personal terminations ꞃɱ (or ɑꞃɱ), ꞃꞇ (or ɑꞃꞇ), &c., to the root.

2. The historical present *i.e.*, that is the present tense used for the past, or where past time is intended, is very common in Irish; indeed in many narrative and historical pieces it occurs quite as often as the ordinary past tense in relating past transactions; as, Ɔɑlɑ Jɛ, ɟoɱoꞃɲo, oll-ɱú-ʒɛɑꞃ loɲʒ leꞃ, "as to Ith, indeed, a ship *is prepared* by him" (instead of oll-ɱu-ʒɛɑð, *was prepared*).

3. It has been already remarked (Par. 3, page 49), that the relative form of the verb is often used for the historical present; as ɲoċɛɑꞃ Ɛꞃɛɱóɲ ðóꞃb, "Eremon reveals to them."

Consuetudinal Past and Present.

1. These tenses express customary action; as lé-ʒɛɑɲɲ ɱé, I am in the habit of reading; lé-ʒɛɑð ꞃé, he used to read, or he was in the habit of reading.

2. In the sentences, "I write always after breakfast," and "he sold bread in his youth," the verbs "write" and "sold" are used in the same manner as the Irish consuetudinal tense; except, indeed, that the idea is not so distinctly marked by the English phrase as by the Irish.

3. One of the particles ðo or ꞃo is usually prefixed to the consuetudinal past; and the initial consonant is generally aspirated; as ðo ʒoꞃꞃðʃꞃ, they used to call.

4. The Irish peasantry seem to feel the want of these two tenses when they are speaking English; and they often, in fact, attempt to import them into the English language, even in districts where no Irish has been spoken for generations; thus they will say, "I do be reading while you do be writing;" "I used to be walking every day while I lived in the country," &c.

Past Tense.

1. In the past tense the initial consonant is aspirated in the active voice, but not in the passive voice.

2. With the exception of the aspiration, the third singular past tense is the same as the root.

3. One of the particles ꝺo or ꝓo is generally prefixed to the past tense in both voices; as ꝺo ꝟeaꝛaꝛ, I stood; ꝓo ċoꝺlaꝛꝛ, thou sleepedst; ꝺo ꝯolaꝺ̇ ꝛaꝺ, they were praised; ꝓo buaꝛleaꝺ̇ é, he was struck.

4. The particle ꝓo, used as a mark of the past tense, is often compounded with other particles, the ꝓ only being retained, but it still causes aspiration in the active voice, as if it were uncompounded.

The principal of these compounds are:—

(1.) Aꝓ, whether? from aŋ and ꝓo; as aꝓ ḃuaꝛl ꝛé, did he strike?

(2.) Ʒuꝓ, that, from ʒo and ꝓo; as cꝓeꝛꝺꝛꝯ ʒuꝓ ḃuaꝛl ꝛé, I believe that he struck.

(3.) Ꝏuŋaꝓ, unless, from ꝯuŋa and ꝓo; as ꝯuŋaꝓ ḃuaꝛl ꝛé unless he struck.

(4.) Naċaꝓ, or ŋa'ꝓ, or ná ꝓ, whether not? from ŋaċ and ꝓo; as ŋáꝓ ḃuaꝛl ꝛé, did not he strike?

(5.) Níoꝓ, not, from ŋí and ꝓo; as ŋíoꝓ ḃuaꝛl ꝛé, he did not strike.*

6. The particle ꝓo, as a sign of past tense, is also often combined with the relative pronoun a; as aŋ ꝼeaꝓ ꝺ'aꝓ ʒ̇eallaꝛ ꝯo leaḃaꝓ, the man *to whom* I promised my book. For a further account of this, see Syntax.

Future Tense.

1. All the personal inflections of this tense, in both voices, begin with the letter ꝼ, which, in the spoken language, is often sounded like ḫ; thus ꝺúŋꝼaꝺ, I shall shut, is colloquially pronounced *doonhad* (instead of *doonfad*).

Conditional Mood.

1. The particle ꝺo, causing aspiration, is often prefixed to verbs in the conditional mood; as ꝺo ꝟꝛuḃalꝼaꝛŋŋ, I would walk.

2. But very often also ꝺá, if, or ꝯuŋa, unless, is prefixed, and with these particles the initial is eclipsed; as ꝺá ḃ-ꝼaʒ̇aꝛŋŋ-ꝛé ꝯo ꝓoʒ̇a, "if I would get my choice;" ꝯuŋa ꝯ-beꝛꝺeaꝺ̇ ꝛé, "unless he would be."

---

* See Second Irish Book, by the Society for the Preservation of the Irish Language.

3. It is important to note that the personal inflections of this mood in both voices, as well as those of the future indicative, all begin with f.

Infinitive Mood.

1. The initial is aspirated in the infinitive, whether the particle do or a be expressed or understood. But in some cases the aspiration is prevented by other grammatical influences, as shown in next paragraph.

2. When the infinitive is preceded by one of the possessive pronouns, the initial of the verb falls under the influence of the pronoun.*

(1.) It is aspirated for a, his; mo, my; do, thy (but here the influence of the pronoun is not perceived, as there would be aspiration without it); as dá gonadh, to wound him (literally to his wounding, and so of the others); do m'gonadh, to wound me; do d'gonadh, to wound thee.

(2.) It is preserved from aspiration by a, her; as dá gonadh, to wound her.

(3.) It is eclipsed by the three plural possessives; as dár n-gonadh, to wound us; do bur n-gonadh, to wound you; dá n-gonadh, to wound them.

3. The general way of forming the infinitive is by adding adh or eadh, the first when the last vowel of the root is broad; the second when the vowel is slender.

4. If the final consonant of the root be preceded by l as part of a diphthong or triphthong, the final vowel is made broad in the infinitive (which is usually, but not always, done by dropping the l); as buail, bualadh, to strike; goil, gonadh, to wound. But if the final consonant be preceded by l alone, the infinitive is formed according to the general rule in the last paragraph; as mill, milleadh, to destroy.

5. The infinitives of many verbs are formed irregularly, and these must be learned by practice. The following are a few of such verbs. Each group exhibits a particular type, in which the manner of forming the infinitive will be obvious on inspection:—

Root or Imperative.	Infinitive.
éag.	d'éag, to die.
snámh.	do shnámh, to swim.
ól.	d'ól, to drink.

---

* For the influence of the possessive pronouns, see pages 15, 17, and see also Syntax.

Root or imperative.	Infinitive.
tarraing.	do tharraing, to draw.
cuir.	do chur, to put.
gol.	do gol, to weep.
imir.	d'imirt, to play.
ingil.	d'ingilt, to graze.
díbir.	do díbirt, to banish.
ceil.	do cheilt, to conceal.
fág.	d' fágbáil, to leave.
gab.	do gabáil, to take.
tóg.	do togbáil, to lift.
lean.	do leanamhain, to follow.
caill.	do chailleamhain, to lose.
oil.	d'oileamhain, to nourish.
foill.	d'foilleamhain, to suit.
gluais.	do gluaiseacht, to move.
éist.	d'éisteacht, to listen.

The Participle.

1. The active participle is merely the infinitive mood, with some such particle as ag prefixed; as ag bualadh, at beating, or a-beating.

2. The passive participle is generally formed by adding te or the when the last vowel of the root is slender, and ta or tha, when broad.

When the root ends in ch, dh, l, ll, n, nn, r, th, or gh (except verbs in uigh or igh), the t of the participal termination retains its sound: after any other consonant, and also in verbs in uigh or igh, the t is aspirated. In the passive voice, the terminations tar and tf follow the same law.

VI. Verbs in uigh, &c.

1. Verbs of two or more syllables, with the root ending in uigh, or igh, and some other dissyllabic verbs ending in il, in, ir, and ir, differ so decidedly from the model verb in the formation of some of their moods and tenses, that some writers,* not without reason, class them as a second conjugation.

2. The difference lies in the formation of the future and of the conditional in both voices; the other moods and tenses are formed like those of buail.

3. In buail, and all other verbs of its kind, the letter f is a characteristic mark of the future and of the conditional mood in both voices, as stated in Par. 3, page 52.

* As, for instance, the Rev. Canon Bourke, in his "College Irish Grammar."

4. The verbs now under consideration have no ꝼ in the future and conditional, but they take instead eó, before the final consonant of the root.

5. In addition to this change, verbs in uiʒ̇ and iʒ̇ change ʒ̇ into ċ; though in the spoken language, both of Munster and of Connaught, the ʒ̇ retains its place.

6. There is no other inflectional difference between these verbs and buail, the personal terminations following the final consonant of the root being the same in all cases.

7. In the other tenses of the indicative, verbs in il, in, ir, and ir are almost always syncopated by the elision of the vowel or diphthong preceding the final root-consonant; as codail, sleep; codlaim, I sleep, &c. (But this change is not regarded as a grammatical inflection).

8. Verbs in uiʒ̇ almost always form their infinitive by dropping i and adding the usual termination ad̈; those in iʒ̇ alone (not preceded by u), retain the i and take u after it in the infinitive; as coṁarṫuiʒ̇, mark; infinitive, coṁarṫuʒ̇ad̈; coṁairliʒ̇, advise; infinitive, coṁairliuʒ̇ad̈.

9. Sometimes there are other slight changes, caused chiefly by the rule caol le caol, &c., which will be obvious on inspection.

10. The following are a few examples of the formation of the present and future indicative, and of the conditional mood, in such verbs The first person singular only is given in each case, as the other persons have the same terminations as buail and meall:—

Root or imperative.	Pres. indicative.	Future indicative.	Conditional Mood.
Díriʒ̇, direct.	díriʒ̇im	díreóċad.	díreóċainn.
Grád̈uiʒ̇, love.	grád̈uiʒ̇im.	gráid̈eóċad.	gráid̈eóċainn.
Lab̈air, speak.	lab̈raim.	laib̈eórad.	laib̈eórainn.
Tarruing, draw.	tairngim.	tairneóngad.	tairneóngainn.
Forgail, open.	forglaim.	foirgeólad.	foirgeólainn.
Corain, defend.	cornaim.	coireónad.	coireónainn.
Innir, tell.	innirim.	inneórad.	inneórainn.
Díbir, banish.	díbrim.	díbeórad.	díbeórainn.

11. In Munster, verbs in il, in, ir, and ir, are conjugated like those in uiʒ̇ or iʒ̇; and the eó comes *after* the final consonant: thus díbir, banish is made in the future and conditional, díbreóʒ̇ad and díbreóʒ̇ainn, as if the verb were díbriʒ̇.

12. A table of the full conjugation of a verb in uiʒ̇ (árduiʒ̇) is given at page 56.

SYNTHETIC CONJUGATION OF meall, deceive.

		Active Voice.		Passive Voice.	
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.		1. — 2. meall 3. meall-aḋ ɾé	meall-amaoɪɾ meall-aɪḋ meall-aɪḋíɾ	Same form as the Present Indicative.	
Indicative Mood.	Pres. Tense.	1. meall-aɪm 2. meall-aɪɾ 3. meall-aɪḋ ɾé	meall-amaoɪd meall-taoɪ meall-aɪd	meall-taɾ { md, ṫú, é	meall-taɾ { ɾɪnn, ɪnn, ɾɪḃ, ɪḃ, ɪad
	Consuet. present.	1. meall-ann { mé 2. tú 3. ɾé	meall-ann { ɾɪnɪ, ɾɪḃ, ɾɪad	Same form as the Present.	
	Simple past.	1. ṁeall-aɾ 2. ṁeall-aɪɾ 3. ṁeall-ɾé	meall-amaɾ ṁeall-aḃaɾ ṁeall-adaɾ	meall-aḋ { mé, ṫú, é	meal-aḋ { ɾɪnn, ɪnn, ɾɪḃ, ɪḃ, ɪad
	Consuet. past.	1. meall-aɪnn 2. ṁeall-ṫá 3. ṁeall-aḋ ɾe	meall-amaoɪɾ ṁeall-ṫaoɪ ṁeall-aɪdíɾ	meall-taoɪ { mé, ṫú, é	meall-taoɪ { ɾɪnn, ɪnn, ɾɪḃ, ɪḃ, ɪad
	Future.	1. meall-ɟad 2. meall-ɟaɪɾ 3. meall-ɟaɪḋ ɾé	meall-ɟamaoɪd meall-ɟaɪḋ meall-ɟaɪd	meall-ɟaɾ { mé, ṫú, é	meall-ɟaɾ { ɾɪnn, ɪnn, ɾɪḃ, ɪḃ, ɪad
Conditional Mood.		1. ṁeall-ɟaɪnn. 2. ṁeall-ɟá 3. ṁeall-ɟaḋ ɾe	ṁeall-ɟamaoɪɾ ṁeall-ɟaɪḋ ṁeall-ɟadaoɪɾ	ṁeall-ɟaɪḋe { mé, ṫú, é	ṁeall-ɟaɪḋe { ɾɪnn, ɪnn, ɾɪḃ, ɪḃ, ɪad
Infinitive Mood, do meall-ad.				Infinitive Mood, do ḃeɪṫ meall-ta.	
Participle, aʒ meall-aḋ.				Participle, meall-ta.	

SYNTHETIC CONJUGATION OF ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇, raise.

		Active Voice.		Passive Voice.	
		SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Imperative Mood.		1. — 2. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇ 3. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-eaɒ̈ ɾé	ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-míɾ ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-íɒ̈ ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ɒíɾ	Same form as the Present Indicative.	
Indicative Mood.	Pres. Tense.	1. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ɪm 2. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ɪɾ 3. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ɪɒ̈ ɾé	ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-míɒ ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ṫí ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ɪɒ	ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ṫeaɾ { mé, ṫú, é }	ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ṫeaɾ { ɾɪŋŋ, ɪŋŋ, ɾɪb̈, ɪb̈, ɪaɒ }
	Consuet. present.	1. 2. 3. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-eaŋŋ { mé, ṫú, ɾé }	ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-eaŋŋ { ɾɪŋŋ, ɾɪb̈, ɾɪaɒ }	Same form as the Present.	
	Simple past.	1. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-eaɾ 2. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ɪɾ 3. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇ -ɾé	ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-eaɱaɾ ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-eab̈aɾ ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-eaɒaɾ	ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-eaɒ̈ { mé, ṫú, é }	ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-eaɒ̈ { ɾɪŋŋ, ɪŋŋ, ɾɪb̈, ɪb̈, ɪaɒ }
	Consuet. past.	1. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ɪŋŋ 2. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ṫeȧ 3. ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-eaɒ̈ ɾé	ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-mɪɾ ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ṫí ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ɒíɾ	ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ṫí { mé, ṫú, é }	ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇-ṫí { ɾɪŋŋ, ɪŋŋ, ɾɪb̈, ɪaɒ }
	Future.	1. ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɒ 2. ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɪɾ 3. ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɪɒ̈ ɾé	ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɱaoɪɒ ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-ṫaoɪɒ̈ ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɪɒ	ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɾ { mé, ṫú, é }	ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɾ { ɾɪŋŋ, ɪŋŋ, ɾɪb̈, ɪb̈, ɪaɒ }
Conditional Mood.		1. ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɪŋŋ 2. ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-ṫȧ 3. ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɒ̈ ɾé	ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɱaoɪɾ ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-ṫaoɪɒ̈ ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɪɒíɾ	ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɪɒ̈e { mé, ṫú, é }	ȧ́ɪɾɒeóċ-aɪɒ̈e { ɾɪŋŋ, ɪŋŋ, ɾɪb̈, ɪb̈, ɪaɒ }
Infinitive Mood, ɒ'ȧ́ɾɒuʒaɒ̈.				Infinitive Mood, ɒo b̈eɪṫ ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇ṫe.	
Participle, aʒ ȧ́ɾɒuʒ̇aɒ̈.				Participle, ȧ́ɾɒuɪʒ̇ṫe.	

VII. IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. There are fourteen irregular verbs, several of which are defective, *i.e.*, want one or more of the moods and tenses. The conjugation of some of them, it will be observed, is made up of those of two or more different verbs.

2. It will also be observed that through all their irregularities, the five synthetic personal terminations remain unchanged; for which reason it is scarcely correct to call these verbs irregular at all.

3. The irregular verbs are as follows:—(1), tá|m, I am; (2), the assertive verb |r; (3), be|||m, I give; (4), be|||m, I bear; (5), č|m, I see (including fe|cim); (6), clu|nim, I hear; (7), déan|m, I do; (8), gn|m or n|m, I do; (9), de|||m, I say; (10), fa|g|m or ge|b|m, I find; (11), |č|m, I eat; (12), ||g|m, I reach; (13), té|d|m, I go; (14), ti|gim, I come.

4. the following is the synthetic conjugation of the irregular verbs (except in the case of the second verb |r, which has no synthetic conjugation). They may be all conjugated analytically, by using the third person singular of each tense with the three personal pronouns, singular and plural, as shown in case of the regular verb, tóg|d, at page 45. As an example, the analytic conjugation of the present tense of the first verb, tá|m, is given.

(1.) Tá|m, *I am.*

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. b|m|r, let us be,
2. b|, be thou.	2. b|d|, be ye.
3. b|dead ré, or b|od ré, let him be.	3. b|d|r, let them be.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

1. tá|m, atá|m, I am.	1. tám|o|d, atám|o|d, we are.
2. tá|n, atá|n, thou art.	2. tát|o|, atát|o|, ye are.
3. tá ré, atá ré, he is.	3. tá|d, atá|d, they are.

Present Tense: analytic conjugation.

1. tá mé, atá mé, I am.	1. tá r|n|n, atá r|n|n, we are.
2. tá tú, atá tú, thou art.	2. tá r|b, atá r|b, ye are.
3. tá ré, atá ré, he is.	3. tá r|ad, atá r|ad, they are

Consuetudinal Present.

1. bíðiṁ, I am usually.	1. bíṁíð, bíðṁíð, bíomaoið, we are usually.
2. bíðir, thou art usually.	2. bíðí, bíðčí, ye are usually.
3. bíðeann ré, or bíonn ré, he is usually.	3. bíð, bíðid, they are usually.

Interrogative and Negative Present.

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, page 59.)

1. ní b-fuilim, I am not.*	1. ní b-fuilmíd, we are not.
2. ní b-fuilir, thou art not.	2. ní b-fuilcí, ye are not.
3. ní b-fuil ré, he is not.	3. ní b-fuilid, they are not.

Past Tense.

1. bíðeas, bíos, I was.	1. bíðeamar, bíomar, we were.
2. bíðir, bír, thou wert.	2. bíðeabar, bíobar, ye were.
3. bíð ré, bí ré, he was.	3. bíðeadar, bíodar, they were.

Consuetudinal Past.

1. bíðinn, bínn, I used to be.	1. bíðmír, bímír, we used to be.
2. bíðčeá, bíčeá, thou usedst to be.	2. bíðčí, bíčí, ye used to be.
3. bíðeað ré, bíoð ré, he used to be.	3. bíðdír, bídír, they used to be.

Interrogative and Negative Past.

(The negative particle is here used: see Par. 3, page 59.)

1. ní raibhas, I was not.	1. ní raibhamar, we were not.
2. ní raibhir, thou wert not.	2. ní raibhabar, ye were not.
3. ní raibh ré, he was not.	3. ní raibhadar, they were not.

Future

1. beidheadh, I shall be.	1. beidhmíd, we shall be.
2. beidhir, thou shalt be.	2. beidhidh, ye shall be.
3. beidh ré, he shall be.	3. beidhid, they shall be.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

1. beidhinn, I would be.	1. beidhmír, we would be.
2. beidhčeá, thou wouldst be.	2. beidhčí, ye would be.
3. beidheadh ré, he would be.	3. beidhír, they would be.

* These are commonly pronounced in conversation as if the b-fuil were omitted in each case; and accordingly they are often contracted in books to ní'lim, ní'lir, ní'l ré, &c.

Infinitive Mood.

Do b̈eɪṫ, *to be.*

Participle.

Aʒ beɪṫ, *being.*

1. Tá is commonly called the substantive verb, and answers to the verb "to be" in English.

2. It has two forms, which the regular verb has not, namely, a form in the present tense, for interrogation and negation, (b̈-ꝼuɪlɪŋ), and a form in the past tense for the same (ꝛab̈aꝛ). These two are classed by O'Donovan as a subjunctive ~~mood~~, present and past tense.

3. The forms b̈-ꝼuɪlɪm and ꝛab̈aꝛ are used only—

(*a.*) After negative and interrogative particles; as ní b̈-ꝼuɪl ꝛé tɪŋŋ, he is not sick; ní ꝛaɪb̈ mé aŋŋ ꝛɪŋ, I was not there: aŋ b̈-ꝼuɪl ꝼíoŋ ɪŋ b̈aꝛ loŋʒaɪb̈? "Is there wine in your ships?" An ꝛab̈aɪꝛ aʒ aŋ ʒ-caꝛꝛaɪʒ? "Wert thou at the rock" (or at Carrick)? O ŋaċ b̈-ꝼuɪl dul uaɪd̈ aʒaɪm, "Since I cannot escape from him" (lit. "since it is not with me to go from him"); aŋ b̈-ꝼuɪl a ḟɪoꝛ aʒat ꝼéɪŋ, a Ꝼhɪŋŋ? Ní ḟuɪl, aꝛ Ꝼɪoŋŋ, "'Is the knowledge of it with thyself, O Finn?' 'It is not,' says Finn."

(But these forms are not used after the interrogative cɪoŋŋaꝛ, how?)

(*b.*) After ʒo, that; as deꝛɪm ʒo b̈-ꝼuɪl ꝛé ꝛláŋ, I say that he is well.

(*c.*) After the relative a when it follows a preposition, or when it signifies "all that" (Par. 3, page 43); as cꝛeud é aŋ ꝼꝛeaʒꝛa ṫab̈aꝛꝼaɪꝛ aꝛ Dhɪa, aʒ a b̈-ꝼuɪl ꝼɪoꝛ do loċt? "What answer wilt thou give to God, who has a knowledge of thy sins?" (lit. "*with whom* is a knowledge"); a b̈-ꝼuɪl ó Aṫ-clɪaṫ ʒo h-Oɪleán móꝛ aŋ b̈aꝛꝛaɪġ, "*All that* is from Ath-cliath (Dublin) to Oilean mor an Bharraigh;" do b̈eɪꝛmíd aꝛ m-bꝛɪaṫaꝛ ŋaċ beaʒ lɪŋŋ a m-beuꝛam ʒo Ꝼɪoŋŋ dɪob̈, "We pledge our word, that we do not think it little, *all that* we shall bring of them to Finn."

4. This verb, like verbs in general, has a relative form for the present and future; but the relative form of the present is always a consuetudinal tense (whereas in regular verbs it is generally not consuetudinal); as maꝛ aŋ ʒ-céadŋa b̈íoꝛ (or b̈íd̈eaꝛ) aŋ báꝛ aŋ oɪꝛċɪll do ꝛíoꝛ aꝛ aŋ duɪŋe; "in like manner death is (in the habit of) lying in wait always for man."

5. The analytic form of this verb is now far more common in the spoken language than the synthetic. In asking a question the analytic form is often preferred: but in answering, the synthetic; as aŋ ꝛaɪb̈ tú aʒ aŋ ʒ-Caꝛꝛaɪʒ? Do b̈íoꝛ aʒ aŋ ʒ-Caꝛꝛaɪʒ. "Were you at Carrick?" "I was at Carrick."

6. The letter a is often prefixed to the present tense both in speaking and writing: atá instead of tá, &c.; it is sometimes slightly emphatic, but often merely euphonic, and does not otherwise affect the meaning.

7. This verb is often used as an auxiliary, like the verb "to be" in English; and it is the only verb in the Irish language that can be regarded as an auxiliary. Thus, instead of buailtear mé, I am struck, we can say tá mé buailte: for do buaileaḋ mé, I was struck, do ḃí mé buailte, &c.

(2.) Ir, *it is.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Ir, it is: as, ir mé, it is I; ir tú, it is thou.

Past Tense.

ba or buḋ, it was; as ba mé, it was I.

Future Tense.

buḋ or ḃur, it will be.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

baḋ, it would be.

1. This is commonly called the assertive verb.

2. It has no inflection for person, being always used in the third person singular: hence it is often called the impersonal verb.

3. It has no other moods and tenses besides those given above.

4. It takes other forms in the modern language, some of them contracted, which are often puzzling to learners.

5. After zur, that, it is often made ab, which is given by O'Donovan as a subjunctive mood; as creidim zur ab é atá tinn, I believe that it is he (who) is sick: mearuim dá réir rin, zur ab dá ḃliaġain azur fiċe rul ruzaḋ Abraham ṫánic Partṫolón i n-'Eirinn, "I think, according to that, that it is two years and twenty before Abraham was born, that Partholon came to Erin."

6. Very often zur ab is shortened by omitting the a; as creidim zur 'bé, &c.; and sometimes the b is joined to zur, as creidim zurb é, &c.

7. After má, if, the i is omitted, as má'r fíor é, if it be true; and in this case the r is often joined to the má; as már fíor é; már maiṫ leat a ḃeiṫ buan, caiṫ fuar azur teiṫ, "If you wish to be long-lived, drink cold and hot" (or "drink cold and flee"—a celebrated Irish saying of double meaning).

8. Sometimes ba or b̈a is shortened to b or b̈ alone, which again is often joined to the preceding word; as laoċ d'áꞃ b̈'aꞃnm Lꞃ, or laoċ daꞃb̈ aꞃnm Lꞃ, "a hero whose name was Lir;" of which the full construction is, laoċ do a ꞃo b̈a aꞃnm Lꞃ, "a hero to whom was name Lir."

9. There is another form, ꝼá, for the past tense, which is now disused, but which is constantly used by Keating, and by other writers of the 17th and 18th centuries: ꝼá tꞃéanꝼeaꞃ, an Ceat ꞃo, "this Ceat was a mighty man;" ꞃꞃ í (Banba) ꝼá bean do Ẇac Coꞃll, d'áꞃ b̈'aꞃnm dílꞃoꞃ Eaṫuꞃ, "it is she (Banba) who was wife to Mac Coll, whose proper name was Eathur;" oꞃ é an Scoꞃtb̈éaꞃla ꝼá teanʒa coꞃtceann ꞃan Scꞃtꞃa an tꞃáṫ do ṫꞃꞃall Neꞃṁeaḋ aꞃde, "Since it is the Scotic language which was the common tongue in Scythia in the time that Neimheadh emigrated from it."†

10. For the distinction between tá and ꞃꞃ, see Idioms.

(3.) bheꞃꞃꞃm, *I give.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. tab̈ꞃamaoꞃꞃ.
2. tab̈aꞃꞃ.	2. tab̈ꞃaꞃḋ.
3. tab̈ꞃaḋ ꞃé.	3. tab̈ꞃadaoꞃꞃ.

Indicative Mood.

First person Singular.

Present:	b̈eꞃꞃꞃm, tab̈ꞃaꞃm, or tuʒaꞃm.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Consuet. Pres:	b̈eꞃꞃeann.	
Past:	ṫuʒaꞃ.	
Consuet, Past:	b̈eꞃꞃꞃnn, ṫuʒaꞃnn.	
Future:	b̈éaꞃꝼad, tab̈aꞃꝼad.	
Conditional Mood:	b̈éaꞃꝼaꞃnn, ṫab̈aꞃꝼaꞃnn.	

Infinitive; do ṫab̈aꞃꞃt. Participle; aʒ tab̈aꞃꞃt.

---

† For the various forms assumed by this verb, in the ancient language, see O'Donovan's most instructive article in his "Irish Grammar," page 161.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE; beiṫeaṁ, taḃaiṫeaṁ, tuigeaṁ, mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	beiṫeaṁ, tuigeaṁ.	Mé, tú, é, &c.
Past:	tuigaḋ.	
Consuet. Past.	beiṫiḋe, tuigiḋe.	
Future:	béaṁfaṁ, taḃaṁfaṁ.	
CONDITIONAL MOOD.	beaṁfaiḋe, taḃaṁfaiḋe.	

Infinitive; do beiṫ taḃaiṫe, do beiṫ tuigthe.

Participle; taḃaiṫe, tuigthe.

1. This verb is made up of three different verbs: in some of the tenses any one of the three may be employed; in some, either of two; and in some only one; as shown in the paradigm.

2. In the present tense, beiṁ (but not the other two verbs,) takes the particle do (which is a mark of the past in regular verbs), and commonly has its initial aspirated.

(4.) beiṁ, *I bear.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. beiṁíṁíd.
2. beir.	2. beiṫíḋ.
3. beireaḋ sé.	3. beiridís.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

Present:	beiṁ.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Consuet. Present:	beireann.	
Past:	rugar.	
Consuet. Past:	beiriṁn.	
Future:	béarfad.	
Conditional Mood:	béarfainn.	

Infinitive; do breiṫ. *Participle;* ag breiṫ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood; beꞁꞁṫeaꞁ ɱé, ṫú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	beꞁꞁṫeaꞁ.	Ɱé, ṫú, é, &c.
Past:	ꞁuʒaḋ.	
Consuet. Past:	ḃeꞁꞁṫí.	
Future:	béaꞁꞁaꞁ.	
Conditional Mood:	ḃéaꞁꞁaꞁḋe.	

Infinitive; do ḃeꞁṫ beꞁꞁṫe. *Participle;* beꞁꞁṫe.

(5.) Ċíɱ, *I see.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. ꝼeꞁcꞁɱíꞁ, ꝼeꞁcꞁɱíḋ.
2. ꝼeꞁc.	2. ꝼeꞁcíḋ.
3. ꝼeꞁceaḋ ꞁé.	3. ꝼeꞁcꞁḋíꞁ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. ċíḋꞁɱ, ċíɱ, ꝼeꞁcꞁɱ.	1. ċíḋɱíḋ, ċíɱíḋ, ꝼeꞁcꞁɱíḋ.
2. ċíḋꞁꞁ, ċíꞁ, ꝼeꞁcꞁꞁ.	2. ċíḋṫí, ċíṫí, ꝼeꞁcṫí.
3. ċíḋꞁḋ ꞁé, ċꞁḋ ꞁé, ꝼeꞁcꞁḋ ꞁé.	3. ċíḋꞁḋ, ċíḋ, ꝼeꞁcꞁḋ.

Consuet. Pres.; ċíḋeaɲɲ, ꝼeꞁceaɲɲ, ɱé, ṫú, é, &c.

Past.

1. ċoɲɲaꞁcaꞁ.	1. ċoɲcaɱaꞁ.
2. ċoɲɲaꞁcaꞁꞁ.	2. ċoɲcaḃaꞁ.
3. ċoɲɲaꞁꞁc ꞁé.	3. ċoɲcaḋaꞁ.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:	ċíḋꞁɲɲ or ċíɲɲ.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	ċíḋꝼeaḋ or ċíꝼeaḋ.	
Conditional Mood:	ċíḋꝼꞁɲɲ, or ċíꝼꞁɲɲ, or ꝼ̇eꞁcꞁɲɲ.	

Infinitive Mood; ḋ'ꝼ̇eꞁcꞁꞁɲ or ḋ'ꝼ̇eꞁcꞁꞁɲṫ.

Participle; aʒ ꝼeꞁcꞁꞁɲ or aʒ ꝼeꞁcꞁꞁɲṫ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood; ꝼeꞁcṫeaꞃ, ɱé, ṫu, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense:	ċíðṫeaꞃ or ꝼeꞁcṫeaꞃ.	We, ṫú, é, &c.
Past:	coŋŋaꞃċað.	
Past. Consuet.:	ċíðṫí or ꝼeꞁċṫí.	
Future:	ċíðꝼeaꞃ or ꝼeꞁcꝼeaꞃ.	
Conditional Mood:	ċíðꝼꞁðe or ḟeꞁcꝼꞁðe.	

Infinitive Mood; ðó ḃeꞁṫ ꝼeꞁcṫe. *Participle;* ꝼeꞁcṫe.

1. Ċíðꞁɱ is defective in some of its moods and tenses, which are supplied by other verbs—the imperative and infinitive by ꝼeꞁcꞁɱ or ꝼaꞁcꞁɱ, and the past indicative of both voices by an old verb—otherwise disused—coŋŋaꞃcaꞁɱ.

2. Ꝼeꞁcꞁɱ or ꝼaꞁcꞁɱ, although it is brought in among the irregular verbs, to supply the defects of ċíðꞁɱ, is itself regular.

3. Observe that the initial of ċíðꞁɱ is *always* aspirated.

(6.) Cluꞁŋꞁɱ, *I hear.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

1. ċualaꞃ.	1. ċualaɱaꞃ.
2. ċualaꞁꞃ.	2. ċualaḃaꞃ.
3. ċualaꞁð ꞃé.	3. ċualaðaꞃ.

Infinitive Mood, Active; ðo ċloꞃ or ðo ċloꞁꞃtꞁŋ.

Participle, Active; aʒ cloꞃ or aʒ cloꞁꞃtꞁŋ.

1. In all the other moods and tenses, cluꞁŋꞁɱ is regular, and is conjugated like buaꞁl.

(7.) ðéaŋaꞁɱ, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

1. . . .	1. ðéaŋaɱ, ðéaŋaɱaoꞁꞃ, ðéaŋaɱaoꞁð.
2. ðéaŋ.	2. ðéaŋaꞁð.
3. ðéaŋað ꞃé.	3. ðéaŋaꞁðíꞃ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Past Tense.

1. ꞃꞁʒ̇ŋeaꞅ, ḋéaꞃŋaꞅ, ḋéaŋaꞅ.	1. ꞃꞁʒ̇ŋeaɱaꞃ, ḋéaꞃŋaɱaꞃ, ḋéaŋaɱaꞃ.
2. ꞃꞁʒ̇ŋꞁꞅ, ḋéaꞃŋaꞁꞅ, ḋéaŋaꞁꞅ.	2. ꞃꞁʒ̇ŋeaḃaꞃ, ḋéaꞃŋaḃaꞃ, ḋéaŋaḃaꞃ.
3. ꞃꞁʒ̇ŋe ꞅé, ḋéaꞃŋaḋ ꞅé, ḋéaŋ ꞅé.	3. ꞃꞁʒ̇ŋeaḋaꞃ, ḋéaꞃŋaḋaꞃ, ḋéaŋaḋaꞃ.

First Person Singular.

Present:	ḋéaŋaꞁɱ.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Consuet. Pres.:	ḋéaŋaŋŋ.	
Consuet. Past:	ʒ̇ŋíḋꞁŋŋ, ḋéaꞃŋaꞁŋŋ, ḋéaŋaꞁŋŋ.	
Future:	ḋéaŋꝼaḋ.	
Conditional Mood:	ḋéaŋꝼaꞁŋŋ.	

Infinitive Mood: ḋo ḋéaŋaṁ or ḋéaŋaḋ.

Participle; aʒ ḋéaŋaṁ, or aʒ ḋéaŋaḋ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD; Ḋéaŋtaꞃ ɱé, ṫú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	ḋéaŋtaꞃ.	Ɱé, ṫú, é, &c.
Past:	ꞃꞁʒ̇ŋeaḋ, ḋéaꞃŋaḋ.	
Consuet. Past:	ʒ̇ŋíꞇí.	
Future:	ḋéaŋꝼaꞃ.	
Conditional Mood:	ḋéaŋꝼaꞁḋe.	

Infinitive Mood; ḋo ḃeꞁṫ ḋéaŋta. *Participle;* ḋéaŋta.

1. This verb and the next borrow from each other to form some of the moods and tenses in which they are defective.

(8.) Ʒŋíɱ or ŋíɱ, *I do.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

First Person Singular.

Present:	ʒŋíɱ or ŋíɱ.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Past:	ʒ̇ŋíḋeaꞅ or ŋíḋeaꞅ.	
Consuet. Past:	ʒŋíḋꞁŋŋ or ŋíḋꞁŋŋ.	

PASSIVE VOICE.

Indicative Mood.

Present:	ʒŋíċeaɾ, or ŋíċeaɾ.	Ẇé, ċú, é, &c.
Consuet. Past:	ʒ̇ŋíċí, or ŋíċí.	

1. This verb is used in no other moods or tenses; but so far as it goes it is very common in both forms—with and without the ʒ (ʒŋíɱ and ŋíɱ). The other moods and tenses are expressed by means of ɗéaŋaɪɱ.

(9.) Ɗeɪɾɪɱ, *I say.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. abɾaɱ, abɾaɱaoɪɾ, abɾaɱaoɪɗ.
2. abaɪɾ.	2. abɾaɪɗ.
3. abɾaɗ ɾé.	3. abɾaɗaoɪɾ.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

1. ɗeɪɾɪɱ.	1. ɗeɪɾɪɱíɗ.
2. ɗeɪɾɪɾ.	2. ɗeɪɾċɪɗ.
3. ɗeɪɾ ɾé.	3. ɗeɪɾɪɗ.

Consuet. Present; ɗeɪɾeaŋŋ ɱé, ċú ɾé, &c.

Past.

1. ɗuḃɾaɾ.	1. ɗuḃɾaɱaɾ.
2. ɗuḃɾaɪɾ.	2. ɗuḃɾaḃaɾ.
3. ɗuḃaɪɾċ ɾé.	3. ɗuḃɾaɗaɾ.

First person singular.

Consuet. Past:	ɗeɪɾɪŋŋ.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	ɗéaɾɟaɗ.	
Conditional Mood:	ɗéaɾɟaɪŋŋ.	

Infinitive Mood; ɗo ɾáɗ. *Participle;* aʒ ɾáɗ.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood: abaiṫean mé, tú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	deiṁeann.	We, ṫú, é, &c.
Past:	dubhradh.	
Consuet. Past:	deiṁtí.	
Future:	déanfaar.	
Conditional Mood:	déanfaidhe.	

Infinitive Mood; do bheiṫ naidhte, do bheiṫ naiṫe.

Participle; naidhte, naiṫe.

1- The verb abraim, I say, from which deirim borrows its imperative, is itself a regular verb.

2. Observe the characteristics of dubhrar, the past indicative active:—(*a*) it does not take the participle do or no; (*b*) the initial is not aspirated.

3. The letter a is often prefixed to this verb for the sake of emphasis; as, a deirim, for deirim, I say; a dubhairt sé, for dubhairt sé, he said.

(**10.**) Faghaim or ghabhim, *I find.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. faghmaoid, faghmaoidh.
2. fagh.	2. faghaidh.
3. faghadh sé.	3. faghaidís.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. faghaim or ghabhim.	1. faghmaoidh, or ghabhmhidh.
2. faghair or ghabhair.	2. faghaidh or ghabhaidh.
3. faghaidh sé, or ghabh sé.	3. faghadh or ghabhadh.

Past.

1. fuarar.	1. fuaramar.
2. fuarais.	2. fuarabhar.
3. fuair sé.	3. fuaradar.

First person singular.

Consuet. Past:	faghainn or ghabhainn.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	gheabhadh, gheobhadh.	
Future neg. & interrog.:	gheabhadh or bh-fuighead,	
Conditional Mood:	gheabhainn, gheobhainn, or bh-faghainn, bh-fuighinn.	

Infinitive; d' fhaghail. *Participle;* ag faghail.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative mood; ꝼaʒ̇ċaꞃ ɱé, ċú, é, &c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present:	ꝼaʒ̇ċaꞃ.	Ɯe, ċú, é, &c.
Past:	ꝼuaꞃaḋ or ꝼꞃ|ċ.	
Consuet. Past.:	ʒ̇e|ḃċ́ſ.	
Conditional Mood:	ʒ̇eaḃċa|ḋe, ḃ-ꝼu|ʒ̇ċ|ḋe.	

(*Defective in Infinitive and Participle.*)

1. The second form of this verb (ʒ̇e|ḃ|ɱ) has its initial aspirated in the present and future active.

2. The past tense (ꝼuaꞃaꞃ, &c.), may or may not take the particle ḋo or ꞃo; but its initial consonant is not aspirated.

(11.)]ċ|ɱ, *I eat.*

ACTIVE VOICE.

First Person Singular.

Future Indicative:	|oꞃꝼaḋ.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Conditional Mood:	|oꞃꝼa|ŋŋ.	

1. The past indicative is either the regular form ḋ'|ċeaꞃ, &c., or the irregular ḋuaꞃ (with the usual terminations:—ḋua|ꞃ, ḋua|ḋ ꞃé, &c.)

2. The infinitive is ḋ'|ċe,

3. In other respects this verb is regular.

(12.) Ꞃ|ʒ̇|ɱ, *I reach.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. ꞃ|ʒ̇ɱ́ſꞃ.
2. ꞃ|ʒ̇.	2. ꞃ|ʒ́ſḋ.
3. ꞃ|ʒ̇eaḋ ꞃé.	3. ꞃ|ʒ̇|ḋ́ſꞃ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. ꞃ|ʒ̇|ɱ.	1. ꞃ|ʒ̇ɱ́|ḋ.
2. ꞃ|ʒ|ꞃ.	2. ꞃ|ʒ̇ċ́ſ.
3. ꞃ|ʒ̇ ꞃé.	3. ꞃ|ʒ̇|ḋ.

Past.

1. ꞃáŋʒaꞃ.	1. ꞃáŋʒaɱaꞃ.
2. ꞃáŋʒa|ꞃ.	2. ꞃáŋʒaḃaꞃ.
3. ꞃá|ŋ|ʒ ꞃé, ꞃáŋa|ʒ ꞃé.	3. ꞃáŋʒaḋaꞃ.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:	ꞃꞁʒ̇ꞁꞃꞃ.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	ꞃꞁʒ̇ꞇeaḋ.	
Conditional Mood:	ꞃꞁʒ̇ꞇꞁꞃꞃ.	

Infinitive; ḋo ꞃꞁaċꞇaꞁꞃ, or ḋo ꞃoċꞇaꞁꞃ.

1. The past, future, and conditional, are sometimes expressed by a different verb, as follows:—but this form (which is the same form as the infinitive), is not often met with in the modern language.

First Person Singular.

Past:	ꞃꞁaċꞇaꞃ	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	ꞃꞁaċꞇꞇaḋ.	
Conditional Mood:	ꞃꞁaċꞇꞇaꞁꞃꞃ.	

(**13.**) Ꞇéꞁḋꞁꞃ, *I go.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1.	1. ꞇéꞁḋꞃíꞃ.
2. ꞇéꞁḋ.	2. ꞇeꞁḋꞁḋ.
3. ꞇeꞁḋeaḋ ꞃé.	3. ꞇéꞁḋḋíꞃ.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. ꞇéꞁḋꞁꞃ.	1. ꞇéꞁḋꞃíḋ.
2. ꞇéꞁḋꞁꞃ.	2. ꞇéꞁḋꞇíḋ, or ꞇéꞁꞇꞁḋ.
3. ꞇéꞁḋ ꞃé.	3. ꞇéꞁḋꞁḋ.

Past Tense.

1. ċuaḋaꞃ.	1. ċuaḋꞃaꞃ.
2. ċuaḋaꞁꞃ.	2. ċuaḋḃaꞃ.
3. ċuaꞁḋ ꞃé.	3. ċuaḋḋaꞃ.

There is another form of the past tense of this verb used after the particles ʒo, ꞃí, &c., which O'Donovan classes as a subjunctive mood. The negative ꞃí, which aspirates, is here prefixed: after ʒo, the initial would be eclipsed.

1. ꞃí ḋeaċaꞃ.	1. ꞃí ḋeaċaꞃaꞃ.
2. ꞃí ḋeaċaꞁꞃ.	2. ꞃí ḋeaċaḃaꞃ.
3. ꞃí ḋeaċaꞁḋ ꞃé.	3. ꞃí ḋeaċaḋaꞃ.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:	ꞇéꞁḋꞁꞃꞃ.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	ꞃaċꞇaḋ, or ꞃaċaḋ.	
Conditional Mood:	ꞃaċꞇaꞁꞃꞃ, or ꞃaċaꞁꞃꞃ.	

Infinitive; ḋo ḋul. *Participle;* aʒ ḋul.

(14.) tiʒim, *I come.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
1. . . .	1. tiʒimís, or tiʒeam.
2. tar, or tiʒ.	2. tiʒid.
3. tiʒead ṡé.	3. tiʒidís.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. tiʒim.	1. tiʒimíd.
2. tiʒir.	2. tiʒíd, tiʒṫíd.
3. tiʒ ṡé.	3. tiʒid.

Past Tense.

1. ṫáŋʒaṡ.	1. ṫáŋʒamar.
2. ṫáŋʒaiṡ.	2. ṫáŋʒaḃar.
3. ṫáiŋic ṡé.	3. ṫáŋʒadar.

First Person Singular.

Consuet. Past:	ṫiʒiŋŋ.	With the usual terminations for the other persons and numbers.
Future:	tiocfad.	
Conditional Mood:	ṫiocfaiŋŋ.	

Infinitive; do ṫeaċt. *Participle;* aʒ teaċt.

OTHER DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. The following defective verbs are often met with in the modern language:

Air, or ar, "says." It is used only in the third person, much like the English defective verb *quoth;* as air ṡé, says he: creud do ḋéuŋfair dam? ar Diarmaid: "'What wilt thou do for me?' says Diarmaid;" "déaŋ eólur dúiŋ mar a ḃ-fuil ṡé, ar ṡiad, "'give knowledge to us where he is,' said they (or say they)." In the older writings this verb is often written ol.

At baṫ, he (or she) died.

Dar, it seems, it seemed, or it might seem (according to the tense or mood of the verb with which it is connected). Dar liom, methinks or methought; dar leat, it seems or seemed to thee; and so on with the rest of these prepositional pronouns singular and plural: Do riṫ ṡé, dar liom, mar aŋ ʒ̇aoiṫ, he ran, methought (or it seemed to me), like the wind.

Dliʒ̇ṫear, it is lawful, it is allowed.

Dur, to know; ṫaiŋic ṡé dur aŋ raiḃ ṡiad aŋŋ, he came (in order) to know whether they were there.

Feadar, I know; used only negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense: ní ḟeadar mé, I do not know; ní ḟeadar ṡé, he does not know; aŋ ḃ-feadraḃar? do ye know?

Ní fuláir, it is necessary (or "must," used impersonally); ní fuláir dam a bheith air triubhal, "it is necessary for me to be (or I must be) walking (away)."

CHAPTER VI.

ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, INTERJECTIONS.

I. ADVERBS.

1. There are not many simple adverbs in the Irish language. Far the greatest number of the Irish adverbs are compounded of two or more words.

2. An adverb may be formed from an adjective by prefixing the particle go, which in this application has the same effect as the English postfix *ly;* as borb, fierce; go borb, fiercely. Almost all Irish adjectives admit of being changed in this manner to adverbs.

3. Besides the adverbs formed in this way, there are many compound adverbs, which are generally made up of a noun and a preposition; the preposition often causing an eclipsis.

4. The following is an alphabetical list of the compound adverbs in most general use, with a few of the simple adverbs. Some of the compound adverbs become, in some situations, prepositions:—

A b-fad far off, in space or time.
Abhar, on this side. (See thall.)
A d-tosach, at first, in the beginning.
A d-tuaidh, northwards.
A g-céadóir, immediately.
A g-céin, far off.
A g-coimhuidhe, always.
Ag sin, there.
Ag so, here.
Ag súd, yonder.
Air ais, back, backward. (See ais éigin)
Air ball, on the spot, instantly.
Air bith, at all.
Air bun, on foundation: cur air bun, to found, to institute.
Air cheana, in like manner; in general.
Air choidhche, for ever.
Air éigin, with difficulty; perforce:—air ais no air éigin, by consent or by force: *nolens volens; willy nilly.*
Air g-cúl, backwards, back: cur air g-cúl—the opposite to cur air bun—to put back, to abolish.
Air leith, apart, separately.
Air mhodh, in a manner; so that.
Air son, for the sake of.
Aird uaimh, at times; sometimes.
Amach, out of, outside.
Amháin, alone, only.
Amárach, to-morrow.
Amuigh, outside.
Amhail, like, as.
An airde, on high.
Ané, yesterday.
Anfor, from below, upwards.
Ann éinfheacht, together.
Ann sin, there.
Ann so, here.
Ann súd, yonder.
A ndeas, southward.
Anaice, near.
Anall, on this side; hither.
A ngar, near.
Anocht, to-day.

Anoir, now.
Anonn, to that side; thither.
An tan, when.
Anuar, from above, downwards.
Aréir, last night.
Ariaṁ, ever.
Arír, again.
Arteaċ, in, into.
Artiġ, in, inside.
beaz naċ, little but; almost.
Cá h-ar, cad ar, canar, from what? whence?
Cá ṁéid, how many? how much?
Cáit, cá h-áit, cia áit, what place?
De b̈riġ, because.
Do ṙíor, always.
Eaḋon, that is, *i. e.; id est.*
Fá, gives an adverbial meaning to some words:
Fá ċéadóir, immediately.
Fá ḋeoiġ, at last.
Fá ḋó, twice.
Fá ṙeaċ, by turns; respectively.
Fá ṫrí, thrice.
Zo bráṫ, for ever (lit. to [the] judgment).
Zo deiṁin, verily; truly; indeed.
Zo d-tí, unto.
Zo fóil, yet; awhile.
Zo h-iomlán, altogether.
Zo léir, entirely.
Zo leór, enough.
Iomorro, however, moreover, indeed.
Waille re, together with.
War an z-céadna, likewise; in like manner.
War aon le, together with.
No zo, until.
Ó ṙoin ale, from that time out.
Ór cionn, above.
Síor, downwards.
Soir, eastwards.
Suar, upwards.
Thall, on the other side; beyond. (See ab̈ur).
Tamall, awhile.
Tuille eile, besides; moreover.

II. PREPOSITIONS.

1. The following is a list of the simple prepositions:—

A or i, as a m-baile, in a town.
A, out of, or from (unusual); as a Wuṁain, out of Munster.
Az or aiz, at, with.
Air, ar, upon.
Ann, in. This takes r before the article. (See page 21.)
Ar, out of.
Chum, to or towards, for the purpose of.
Dar, used in swearing, equivalent to *by:* dar mo b̈riaṫar, "by my word."
Do, to.
Eadár, the same as idir.
Fá or faoi, under.
Zan, without.
Zo, towards, along with. It takes r before the article an; as zur an d-tiġ, to the house.
I, the same as a.
Iar, after. It takes r before the article (an) and becomes iarr.
Idir, between.
Im, the same as um.
Le or re, with. It takes r before the article (an), and then becomes leir or rir.
War, like, as.
Ó, from.
Or, over, above.
Re, ria, before. It takes r before the article (an).

Seaċ, beyond, besides.

Tar, over, across. It takes r before the article (an), and then becomes tarr.

Tré, through. It takes r before the article, and then becomes trér.

Tríd, the same as tré.

Um or im, about.

2. Some of the simple prepositions are amalgamated with the personal and possessive pronouns.

3. Besides the simple prepositions, there are in Irish a number of compound prepositions. Each of these consists of a simple preposition followed by a noun; and in many of them the initial of the noun is eclipsed by the influence of the simple preposition. In some cases the preposition has dropped out and only the noun remains.

4. The following is a list of the most usual compound prepositions, with their meanings:—

A b-fiadnaise, in presence of.

A b-foċair, with, along with.

A d-taobh, in regard to, concerning.

A d-tigeall: see tigeall.

A g-ceann, at the head of, at the end of, with regard to.

A g-coinne, against, for (in the phrase to go *for*): rithid a g-coinne a chéile, "they run against each other:" do chuaid se a g-coinne a athar, he went for his father.

A g-cois, by the side of, hard by, along. This is often contracted to cois: cois na Bríghde, "beside the (river) Bride."

A h-aithle, after: "a h-aithle na laoidhe sin, "after that lay."

Ameasg, amongst: síos ameasg na g-coillteadh, "down amongst the woods."

A láthair, in presence of.

Air aghaidh, forward, over against, opposite: dul air aghaidh, to go forward, to progress: air aghaidh na gaoithe, opposite (exposed to) the wind.

Air béalaibh, in front of, opposite: do luighdís do ghnáth, a n-iomdaibh ar bealaibh, a n-athar, "they used to lie, customarily, in beds opposite their father" (Children of Lir).

Air bun, on foundation.

Air ceann, for (in the phrase to go for); as a dubhairt Naise le h-Ardan dul air ceann Fergusa, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus.

Air fead, through, throughout, during: air fead bliadhna, "during a year."

Air fud, throughout, amongst: air fud na d-tonn, amongst the waves.

Air g-cúl, behind.

Air son, for the sake of.

A n-diaidh, after: a n-diaidh a chéile, after one another, one after another.

Cois, contracted from a g-cois.

Dála, as to: dála Blánaide, "as to Blanaid."
D'éis, after: d'éis na Dílinne, "after the Deluge."
D'ionnsaighidh or d'ionnsaighe, towards: Gluaiseas sé d'ionnsaighe a luinge, "he goes forward towards his ship."
Docum, towards.
Do réir, according to.
Go nuige, unto, until.
Go dtí, to, unto, as far as: siubhail go dtí an doras, walk to the door.
Iomdha, as to: iomdha Fhinn "as to Finn."
Fá chuairim, towards.
Láimh le or láimh re, near, by, beside: suidh láimh liom, sit near me; láimh re Beannaibh Boirche, "beside Beanna Boirche."
Os cionn, over, above: Gradhuigh Dia os cionn gach uile nidh, "love God above all things"; do éirigh os cionn an gaoith, "he rose over the spear."
I gcionn, the same as a gceann: i gcionn na bliadhna, "at the end of the year."
Tar éann, besides, for the sake of, beyond, in preference to.
Tar ais, backwards; same as ais ais.
Tar éis, after; the same as déis: tar éis na Samhna, "after the Samhain (1st of November)"
Timcheall, about, around: teacht, timcheall Dhiarmada, "to go around Dermat"
Os comhair, in presence of, before the face of: os comhair Fhinn, "in presence of Finn."

III. CONJUNCTIONS.

1. There are few simple conjunctions in the Irish language.

2. There are, however, many compound conjunctions, much like the English conjunctional phrases, "for the reason that," "to the end that," &c.

3. Generally speaking, the meanings of the compound conjunctions may be easily gathered from the signification of the words that compose them; but there are a few whose meanings are not so plain.

4. The following is a list of the simple conjunctions, with their meanings, together with those of the compound conjunctions whose meanings are not quite obvious:—

Acht, but, except.
Acht cheana, but however.
Agus, and; often contracted to a', as, and 's.
Air an adhbar sin, wherefore.
An, an interrogative particle: an bhfuil sí slán? Is she well?
Ar, the same as the last, only used with the past tense.
Bíodh, although: it is really the third singular imperative of the verb tá im.
Cís: see gís.
Cóir, as.

Dá, if: sometimes written dá mo.
Do ḃrıġ, because.
Do ċum ʒo. in order that.
Fór, yet, moreover.
Ʒıḋ, or ʒıḋeaḋ, although.
Ʒo, that.
Ʒur, that: formed of the preceding and ro. (See page 58.)
Joŋá ıŋá: see ŋá.
Joŋŋur ʒo, in order that, so that.
Wá, if.
Wá tá ʒo, although that.
War, as; see muŋa.
Wuŋa, if not, unless; often written mur, and even (corruptly) mar.
Waıseaḋ, if so, well then.
War sıŋ, mar so, in that manner, in this manner: thus.
Ná, than: see ıoŋá,
Ná, nor, not.
Nó, or; often pronounced ŋú in Munster.
Ó, since, seeing that, because.
Ó ṫárla, since, whereas.
Oır, because.
Sul, before.
Uıme sıŋ, therefore, wherefore.

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

1. The following is a list of the most common interjections. Besides these there are many interjectional expressions somewhat like the English, "O shame!" "Alack! and well-a-day!" but it is not necessary to enumerate them:—

A, the sign of the vocative case, usually translated "O."
Ar truaġ, alas! what a pity!
Eıst, hush! list!
Faraor, faraoır, alas!
Faraoır ʒeur, alas! O sharp sorrow!
Féaċ, see! behold!
Waırʒ, woe! Oh sad!
Woŋáıre, Oh shame!
Woŋuar, alas! woe is me!
Wo ṫruaġ: see ar truaġ.
Óċ, uċ, alas!
Óċóŋ, or uċóŋ, alas! written oċáŋ or uċáŋ in old writings.
Ólaʒóŋ, alas!

CHAPTER VII.

PREFIXES AND AFFIXES.

1. There are in Irish, as in other languages, prefixes and affixes, which modify the meanings of words.

I. PREFIXES.

1. The following is a list of the principal prefixes, with their meanings: it will be observed that many of them have a double form, which arises from conformity to the rule caol le caol, &c.

2. Most of these are inseparable particles; but a few are also employed independently as separate words:—

Aır or eır, back or again, like English *re:* as ıoc, payment; aırıoc, repayment, restitution; eırġe, rising; eıreıġe resurrection.

Aṁ, or aıṁ, a negative particle, like English *un;* as ṛéıḋ, open, clear; aıṁṛéıḋ, difficult, rough.

An, an intensitive particle: as luaṫʒáıṛeaċ, joyful; anluaṫʒáıṛeaċ, overjoyed.

An or aın, a negative particle, like English *un:* as tṛáṫ, time; antṛáṫ, untimely; mían, desire; aınmían, evil desire.

Aṫ, a reiterative, like English *re:* as ṛáḋ, a saying; aṫṛáḋ, a repetition.

Aṫ has sometimes the meaning of English *dis* in *dismantle:* as cuma, a form; aṫċumaḋ, to deform, to destroy; ṛıoʒaḋ, to crown or elect a king; aıṫṛıoʒaḋ, to dethrone.

Ban, feminine (from bean, a woman); as eaċlaċ, a messenger; ban-eaċlaċ, or baın-eaċlaċ, a female messenger.

Bıṫ, or bıoṫ, lasting, constant: as beó, living; bıṫbeó, everlasting.

Cóṁ, equal; English *co* or *con:* as aımṛeaṛ, time; coṁaımṛeaṛac, cotemporary.

Deaʒ, deıʒ, good: as blaṛ, taste; deaʒblaṛ, good or pleasant taste.

Dí, ḋío, a negative, like English *dis:* as céıllıḋe, wise; díċéıllıḋe, foolish: ceann, a head; díċeannaḋ, to behead.

Droċ, droıċ, bad or evil: as obaıṛ, work; droċ-obaıṛ an evil work.

Do and ṛo are opposites, as are also often the letters d and ṛ. Do denotes difficulty, or ill, or the absence of some good or positive quality: as ꝼaıcṛeanaċ or ṛoꝼaıcṛeanaċ, visible; doꝼaıcṛeanaċ, invisible; doláṛ, tribulation; ṛóláṛ, comfort; donaṛ, ill luck; ṛonaṛ, good luck; do-ḋéunta, hard to be done; ṛo-ḋéunta, easy to be done; duḃaċ, sad; ṛuḃaċ, merry.

Ea, a negative, often causing eclipsis: as daınʒean, strong; éadaınʒean, weak; cóıṛ, just; éaʒcóıṛ, injustice; ṫṛom, heavy; éadtṛom, light.

Eaṛ, a negative: as onóıṛ, honor; eaṛonóıṛ, dishonor; ṛlán, healthful; eaṛlán, sick; caıṛdeaṛ, friendship; eaṛcaıṛdeaṛ, enmity.

Ꝼo, under: as duıne, a man; ꝼoḋuıne, an *under-man*, a common man, a servant.

Ꝼṛıṫ, against, back *contra:* as buılle, a stroke; ꝼṛıṫḃuılle, a back-stroke; bac, a hook; ꝼṛıoṫḃac, a *back-hook*, a harb.

Jl, ıol, many: as ıomad, much; ılıomad, sundry, various; daṫ, a color; ıoldaṫaċ, many colored; ꝼaoḃaṛ, an edge; ıolꝼaoḃaıṛ, many-edged weapons.

Jn, ıon, fit: as déunta, done; ındéunta, fit to be done; ṛaıḋte, said; ıonṛaıḋte, fit to be said.

Láŋ, full, used as an intensitive: as aɪðḃéɪl, vast; láŋaɪðḃéɪl, awfully vast.

Leaṫ, half: as uaɪr, an hour; leaṫuaɪr, half an hour. This word is also used to denote one of a pair: thus ɾúɪl, an eye; leaṫ-ɾúɪl, (literally *half an eye*), one of two eyes. See "Idiom, No. 13."

Wí, mío, a negative: as mear, respect; míṁear, disrespect; cóṁaɪrle, advice; mɪoċóṁaɪrle, evil advice.

Neaṁ, neɪṁ, a negative: as coɪmɾɪʒṫe, comprehensible; neaṁċoɪmɾɪʒṫe, incomprehensible: nɪð, a thing; neɪṁnɪð, nothing.

Neuṁ, before, like English *pre:* as raɪðte, said; neuṁ-raɪðte, aforesaid.

No, an intensitive particle: as mór, great; ró-ṁór, very great.

Sár, an intensitive particle: as maɪṫ, good; ɾár-ṁaɪṫ, very good.

So, ɾoɪ, the opposite to do, denotes apt, easy, good: as dearḃ-ṫa, proved; ɾoɪðearḃṫa, easily proved.

Ur or uɪr, an intensitive particle: as íɾeal, lo; úɪríɾeal, very low humble, mean, vile.

II. AFFIXES OR TERMINATIONS.*

1. The following is a list of the principal affixes or terminations, with their meanings; but it does not include inflectional terminations, which are all given in connection with declensions and conjugations:—

Aċ, when it is the termination of an adjective, means full of, abounding in, like the English *y* and *ous*, with the former of which it seems cognate; as draɪʒean, the black-thorn; draɪʒ-eanaċ, abounding in black-thorn; brɪaṫar, a word; brɪaṫraċ, wordy, talkative.

Aċ, as the termination of a noun, generally denotes a personal agent: as cúṁaċd, power; cúṁaċdaċ, a mighty person; Connaċtaċ, a native of Connaught.

Aċt, an abstract termination, like the English *ness* and *ty* (in *probity*): as carṫanaċ, charitable; carṫanaċt, charity: mór and mórða, great; morðaċt, greatness.

Aɪðe, uɪðe, or ɪðe, a personal termination, denoting a doer; as coɾ, a foot; coɪɾɪðe, a walker; tɪomán, drive; tɪománaɪðe, a driver.

Aɪre, or ɪre, a personal termination, denoting an agent or doer; as lorʒ, a track; lorʒaɪre, a tracker; cealʒ, guile; cealʒaɪre, a deceiver.

Aṁaɪl, has the same meaning as the English *like* and *ly:* as ꝼlaɪṫ, a prince; ꝼlaɪṫeaṁaɪl, princely.

* For a full account of these terminations see the author's "Origin and History of Irish Names of Places." Second series, Chaps. I. and II.

Aŋ, a diminutive termination, but it has now nearly lost its diminutive sense; as loc, a lake; locáŋ, a small lake.

Ar or ear, and sometimes the letter r alone, a termination denoting abstract quality, like act, as aoibinn, delightful; aoibnear, delightfulness or delight; ceann, a head; ceannar, headship, authority.

Bhan and bre, have a collective or cumulative sense; as duille, a leaf; duilleabhar, foliage; dair, an oak; dairbre, a place of oaks.

Chan has a collective sense like the last; as beann, a peak or gable; beannchar, abounding in peaks or gables.

Oc, an ancient adjectival termination, has much the same meaning as the English *ful* and *ly* (in manly). In the modern language it is varied to the forms da, dha, and ta; as mór, great; mórdha, majestic; fear, a man; fearda, manly; míle, a champion; míleadta, champion-like, knightly.

e denotes abstract quality, like act,; as finn, fair or white; finne, fairness; boig, soft; buige, softness.

In a diminutive termination. This may be said to be the only diminutive that still retains its full force in the living language; and it is much used in Ireland even where Irish is not spoken. bóthar, a road; bóthairín, (*bohereen*), a little road; *crusk*, a pitcher; *cruiskeen*, a little pitcher.

Lach, nach, nach, tach, trach, have all the same meaning as ach, namely, full of, abounding in: as brisr, break; brisleach, a breach, a complete defeat; muc, a pig; muclach, a piggery; luachair, rushes; luachairnach, a rushy place; boig, a bog or soft place; boigrach, a place full of bogs; coill, a wood; coillteach, a woody place. These seem to be cognate with the terminations in the English words *poult-ry*, *varie-ty*, &c.

Mhar means abounding in, like the English *ful* and *ly*; as brigh, power; brioghmhar, powerful.

Óg, a diminutive termination; as cfar, black; cfarógh, a black little animal (a clock, or chafer); gabal, a fork; gabalóg, a little fork.

Óir, or dóir, or tóir, denotes an agent or doer, the same as the English *er* in *reaper*; as buail, strike; buailteóir, a thresher; coinneal, a candle; coinnleóir, a candlestick; freal, a scythe; frealadóir, a mower.

Re has a collective signification, like bar, as beul, the mouth; béirre, language, speech.

Seach is used as a sort of feminine termination; as Gall, an Englishman; Gaillreach, an Englishwoman; óinsreach, a female fool (from an old root ón, whence the old word ónmhic, a fool, the equivalent of the modern amadán).

Tach and trach: see lach.

PART III.

SYNTAX.

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

1. When two nouns come together, signifying different things, the second one is in the genitive case; as ʒuṫ ʒaḋaiṛ, the voice of a hound; i ḃ-ꝼlaiṫiof 'Eiṛeaṇn, "in the sovereignty of Erin;" bárṛ na h-iṇse, the top of the island.

2. When the genitive noun is singular masculine, its initial is aspirated if the article is used; as mac an ḟiṛ, the son of the man. (See pages 21 and 22 for this rule and its exceptions.)

3. When the article is not used with the governed noun in the singular number, the initial of the latter is generally not aspirated (except in the case mentioned in next Rule); as Conall i ʒ-cṛoṫaiḃ báis, "Conall in the forms *of death*;" a n-ḋólás bṛóiḋe a's ꝼéiṇe, "in the sorrow *of bondage* and *of pain*."

4. When the noun in the genitive is a proper name, its initial is generally aspirated, even though the article is not used; as sliocṫ Ʒhaoiḋil, "the race of Gaodhal; cloiḋeaṁ Whanannaiṇ, "the sword of Manannan."

Exception:—In this case, ḋ and ṫ often resist aspiration; as Eiṛe, iṇʒean Dealḃaoiṫ, "Eire, the daughter of Dealbhaoth."

5. If the governed noun be in the genitive plural, its initial is eclipsed with the article; and the initial is generally aspirated, if the article is not used; as Daiṇʒeṇ ṁac n-Uisṇeaċ, "the fortress *of* [*the*] *sons* of Usna;" buiḋeaṇ ċuṛaḋ, "a company of knights;" ḋias ḃaṇ, "two women" (or rather "a pair of women.")

Even in the absence of the article, however, an eclipsis sometimes occurs; as, naoi naoṇḃaṛ do ḃí aʒ ṫeaċṫ ḋ'iaṛṛaiḋ cíosa aʒus cáṇa ḃ-ꝼeaṛ n-'Eiṛioṇn, "nine times nine persons who were coming to demand the taxes and tributes *of the men* of Erin."

Sometimes also, in the absence of the article, the noun in the genitive plural is neither aspirated nor eclipsed.

---

* Several of the rules of Syntax have been unavoidably anticipated in Orthography and Etymology, as they are in every Irish Grammar. These rules will be referred to in their proper places in this Syntax, or repeated when thought necessary.

6. When two nouns come together signifying the same thing (or in apposition), they generally agree in case; as, Nuaḋa Aiṛzioḋlám mac Eaċtaiġ mic Eaḋaṛlaiṁ. "Nuadha Silver-hand, son of Eachtach, son of Eadarlamh;" na ḋ-tṛí ḃ-Fiṇṇeaṁṇa, mac Eoċaiḋ, "of the three Finnavnas, sons of Eochad."

Here, in the first example, Nuaḋa, is nominative, and so is mac, which is in apposition to it; Eaċtaiġ, is genitive and so is the next word, mic, which is in apposition to it. In the second example, Fiṇṇeaṁṇa is in the genitive (plural), and mac also, in apposition to it, is in the genitive (plural).

For exceptions to this Rule, see "Idioms," No. 33, page 107. See also next rule.

7. The last rule is not always observed: departures from it are sometimes found, even in good Irish writings; as ꝼáiṇṇiḋe buiḋe óṛḋa maṛ ḃiḋeaḋ aṛ Wháiṛe, bean Sheaġain an ꝼíġeaḋóṛa, "yellow gold rings as used-to-be on Mary, wife of John (the son of) the weaver;" ṫaiṇic ṛiġ Chiaṛṛuiḋe Luaċṛa d'ꝼios a ċoṁḋalta, eaḋon, Cian mac Oilioll a, "the King of Kerry-Luachra came to visit his foster-son, that is, Cian, the son of Oilioll;" do ṫṛiall (Óscaṛ) a ġ-coiṇṇe Wheaṛġaiġ ṁiṛe, an tṛéan, leoṁan, "Oscar went to meet the furious Meargach, *the strong lion.*"

The first example exhibits a disagreement in case between Wháiṛe, and bean, which are in apposition, the former being dative (after aṛ), the latter nominative (its dative would be mnaoi, page 50). In the second example ċoṁḋalta is genitive (after the infinitive, Rule 15, page 90), and Cian, in apposition to it, is nominative (its genitive would be Céin). In the last example Wheaṛġaiġ is genitive, and leoṁan, in apposition to it, is nominative. This last example, however, seems properly to belong to a class of exceptions to Rule 7, which are explained further on. ("Idioms," No. 33, page 107.)

8. A noun used adjectively in English is commonly expressed in Irish by a genitive case; as, English, "a gold ring," Irish, ꝼáiṇṇe óiṛ, a ring of gold. This form of expression is very common in Irish; as ꝼeaṛ ḋliġe, a lawyer; literally "a man of law."

9. Collective nouns are singular in form, and as such they take the singular form of the article (when the article is used); but they are plural in signification, and as such they generally take adjectives and pronouns in the plural number, and also verbs in the plural, when, in accordance with Par. 9, page 45, the plural form of the verb is used; as, noċtuiḋ an ꝼuiṛeaṇṇ siṇ, "that company disclose;" taṇġaḋaṛ an ḃuiḋean ċuṛaḋ siṇ do laṫaiṛ Fhiṇṇ, aġus do ḃeaṇṇuiġ siaḋ dó, "that *company* of knights *came* to the presence of Finn, and *they* saluted him."

The personal nouns from diaṛ to deiċneaḃaṛ, mentioned at

page 37, follow this rule; as, do b̈adar an dıar sın ʒo h-ımreasnaċ, "that pair were at strife."

10. Nouns denoting a part commonly take de with the dative of the nouns (or pronouns) of which they form a part; as, ʒad̈ar d'ár nʒad̈araıb̈, "a hound of our hounds;" aon ċaor bıob̈, "one berry of them;" ʒaċ duıne de'n ṗobul, "each person of the people."

11. The personal nouns, from dıar to deıċneab̈ar inclusive, and also teóra, three, generally govern nouns in the genitive plural; as, dıar b̈an, "two (of) women;" a ṫrıúr mac aʒur a d-trıur ban, "his three sons and their three wives;" teóra ban, "three women; naonb̈ar taoısreaċ, "nine chieftains."

But they sometimes take de with the dative, as in the last rule; as naoı naonb̈ar do ṁaoraıb̈ na b̈-Fóṁoraċ, "nine times nine *of the stewards* of the Fomorians:" mo d̈ís mac, mo d̈ís d'ꝼearaıb̈, "my two sons, my two men."

CHAPTER II.

THE ARTICLE AND NOUN.

1. The article agrees with its noun in number, gender, and case; as, an ꝼear, the man; na ċırce, of the hen; na ba, the cows.

2. For the influence of the article on the noun, see page 22.

3. When one noun governs another in the genitive case, the article can be used only with the latter. Thus, in English we can say "the age of the world" (using the definite article with each noun); but in Irish, the corresponding expression is, aoıs an doṁaın, not, "an" aoıs an doṁaın.

Exception:—When a demonstrative pronoun follows the governing noun, or when the two nouns come together as a compound word, the governing noun may take the article; as, an t-oıde múınte, the teacher; ma do b̈eır tú an oıread sın dúın 'san ló so na n-deór, "if thou givest so much to us in this day of tears." Here the article is used before both ló and deór. Tanʒadar arís ı n-'Eırınn an slıoċt so Shımeon bhrıc, "these descendants of Simon Brec came again into Erin:" here the article is used before slıoċt, the governing noun.

4. When a possessive pronoun is used with the genitive noun, the article cannot be used with either; thus, "the house of my father" is teaċ m' aṫar, not "an" teaċ m' aṫar.

The peculiarity noticed in the last two rules exists also in English when the possessive case is used, *i.e.*, the article can be used only with the possessive noun; as, the world's age; my father's house.

5. When a demonstrative pronoun is used with a noun, the article is also used; as, an fear ſin, that man; literally, "the man that;" na mná úd, yonder women; literally, "the women yonder."

6. The article is used before the names of some countries and cities, where the definite article would not be used in English; as Moenan, Abb Caṫraċ Furſa iſin Fraiſnc, déuz, "Moenan, Abbot of Caher Fursa, in (the) France, died;" Cruaċa na h-'Eireann, "the stacks of (the) Erin;" tuaiſceart na h-Aſia, "the north of (the) Asia." There is in Irish also a form of phrase corresponding to the English "the mighty Hector;" as, an t-Óſcar áż, "the noble Oscar."

7. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb iſ (in any of its forms), the article is used with the noun (but in the corresponding expression in English the definite article would not be used); as, iſ maiṫ an fear é, he is a good man: literally "he is the good man."

8. The Irish article is used before abstract nouns much more commonly than the English definite article; as, an t-ocruſ, "the hunger;" trí niḋ do ċím:—an peacaḋ, an báſ, a'ſ an ṗían, "three things I see—*the* sin, *the* death, and *the* pain."

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

1. Adjectives denoting fullness or a part of anything may take either the dative after de or the genitive; as (dative after de):—idir ḋá ḃaraile lán do leann, "between two barrels full of ale;" tá mé lán do náire, "I am full of shame;" mórán d'úaiſliḃ, "many of nobles;" (genitive):—lán a ḋuirn, "the full of his fist;" an raiḃ mórán airzid aize, "had he much *of money?*" craoḃ draoiġin azuſ a lán áirneaḋ uirre, "a branch of blackthorn and its full *of sloes* on it."

2. The adjective in the comparative degree takes ná (or iná, or ioná,) before the noun which follows it; as, iſ binne a ceól ná lon 'ſná ſmól, "sweeter is her voice (music) than the blackbird and than the thrush."

Exception:—If the adjective in the comparative degree has de ("of it") after it, then ná is not used; as, naċ bu feirrde ḋóiḃ é, "that they would be none the better of it."

AGREEMENT AND COLLOCATION OF THE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

First Case—When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun:

When the adjective is joined immediately with the noun as a

qualifying or limiting term (as in the English "a high tower,") in this case the following **ten** rules apply:—

1. The natural position of the adjective is after its noun; as, cab̈laċ mór, "a great fleet."

The chief exceptions to this are stated in the next two rules.

2. Monosyllabic adjectives are often placed before their nouns; as, caol-ḟear, "slender man; mór ḟairrge, "great sea;" dub̈-ċarraig, "black rock."

3. This is especially the case with the following adjectives, some of which are hardly ever used after their nouns: deaġ, good; droċ, evil; ḟíor, true; nuad̈, new; sean, old; tuaṫ, left-handed.

Numeral adjectives form another exception, for which see next chapter.

4. When a name consists of two words, the adjective comes between them; as, Sliab̈ ad̈b̈al-mor Luaċra, "the tremendous-large Slieve Lougher;" Eaṁuin ṁín áluinn Waċa, "the smooth beautiful Eman Macha."

5. When the adjective follows its noun, it agrees with it in gender, number, and case; as, ḟear maiṫ, a good man; sgéul na mná mórre, "the story of the large woman" (gen. sing fem.); ar an aid̈b̈éis iongainteaiġ, "on the wonderful abyss" (dat. sing. fem.).

6. When the adjective follows its noun, the initial of the adjective is aspirated under the circumstances already stated in Par. 6, page 16; or eclipsed in the circumstance stated in Par. 3, page 34.

7. When two or more nouns are joined together, and are followed by an adjective which qualifies or limits them, all and each, the adjective agrees with the last: in other words, it is the last noun only that influences the adjective, both in grammatical inflection, and in initial change; as, bean agus ḟear maiṫ, a good woman and man; ḟear agus bean ṁaiṫ, a good man and woman.

8. When the adjective precedes the noun, as in Rule 2 and 3, above, it does not agree with the noun, *i.e.*, it is not influenced by the noun, either as to inflection, or as to initial change; in other words, the simple form of the adjective is used, whatever be the number, gender, or case of the noun; as, mór uaisle, "great nobles;" do ṁor uaislib̈, "to [the] great nobles;" bán ċnoic 'Eireann, "the fair hills of Erin;" luaṫ b̈arca, "swift barks;" ḟíor sgeul, "a true story;" ḟíor sgeulta, "true stories."

9. When the adjective precedes the noun, the adjective and the noun are sometimes regarded as one compound word; and the initial of the noun is aspirated (in accordance with Par. 4, page 16); also the vowel of the adjective is often modified by the

rule caol le caol, &c.; as, Deirdre an Duibh-shleibe "Deirdre of Dubh-Shliabh;" óig-bean, "a young woman."

10. When the adjective precedes the noun, the initial of the adjective is subject to the same changes as if the adjective and the noun formed one word, *i.e.*, one noun; as gáire na n-óig-fear, "the laughter of the young men;" an t-ard-ollamh sin, "that chief professor;" an t-sean-bean bocht, "the poor old woman."

SECOND CASE—When the adjective is connected with the noun by a verb:

When the adjective, instead of being joined immediately with the noun, is predicated of, or ascribed to, the noun by a verb of any kind (as in the English, "the man is tall," "he considered the man tall," "he made the knife sharp," "the roads were made straight"), in this case the following **three** rules apply:—

1. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb tá, it follows the noun, the order being:—verb, noun, adjective; as tá an lá breágh. "the day is fine."

2. When an adjective is predicated of a noun by the verb is, it precedes the noun, the order being:—verb, adjective, noun; as is breágh an lá é, "it is a fine day."

3. When an adjective is ascribed to a noun by a verb of any kind, the adjective does not agree with the noun, *i.e.*, the adjective is not influenced by it, either initially or inflectionally; in other words, the simple form of the adjective, without inflection, is used, whatever be the number or gender of the noun; and the initial of the adjective is neither aspirated nor eclipsed (unless under the influence of some other word); as, is aibinn do chuain agat do chalafuinn agat do mhaighe mínsocháca caemhaithe, "delightful are thy harbors and thy bays, and thy flowery lovely plains:" agus croiche péicheadh an na n-dáchuighadh dearg, "and rams' skins dyed red."—(Exodus, xxv. 5).

The first example (from the story of the Children of Usna), exhibits both an agreement according to Rule 5, page 83, and a disagreement according to the present rule. For the three nouns are plural, and the two last adjectives which qualify them directly are in the plural form, while the first adjective, aibinn (modern aoibhinn), which is asserted of them by is, is in its simple form (the plural would be aibinne, or aibhne). In the second example croiche is plural, while dearg is singular (plural dearga).

Observe the difference in meaning in the following, according to agreement or disagreement:—Do shighe sé na braic glasa; do shigne sé na braic glas: in the first the adjective agrees with the noun, (both being plural), showing that it qualifies it directly (Rule 5, page 83), and that the meaning is, "he made the green mantles;" in the second there is no agreement, (the adjec-

tive being singular and the noun plural), showing that the adjective is connected with the noun by the verb (Rule 3, page 84), and that the meaning is "he made the mantles green."

CHAPTER IV.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

1. A numeral adjective, whether cardinal or ordinal, when it consists of one word, goes before its noun; as, tri ꝼiꞃ, three men; ꞅaŋ daꞃa ḫ-aiꞇ, "in the second place."

2. Numeral adjectives, both cardinal and ordinal, from 11 to 19 inclusive, take their nouns between the simple numeral and déaʒ; as, tri caꝼaill déaʒ, thirteen horses; aŋ tꞃeaꞅ ċaꝼaill déaʒ, the thirteenth horse.

3. Aoŋ, one; ḋá, two; ċéad, first; and tꞃeaꞅ, third, cause aspiration; as, aoŋ ꝼeaꞃ, one man; ḋá ṁŋaoi, two women; aŋ tꞃeaꞅ ꝼeaċt, "the third occasion."

4. The numerals ꞅeaċt, oċt, ŋaoi, and deiċ, cause eclipsis (except the noun begins with ꞅ, in which case there is no change); as, ꞅeaċt ṁ-bliaḋŋa, "seven years;" oċt ṁ-ba, "eight cows;" ŋaoi ŋ-aiḃŋe, "nine rivers;" deiċ ḃ-ꝼiꞃ, "ten men."

5. The numerals tri, ceiṫꞃe, cúiʒ, ꞅé, the ordinals (except ċéaḋ and tꞃeaꞅ: Rule 3 above), and the multiples of ten, cause no initial change; as, ceiṫꞃe ʒaḋaiꞃ, "four hounds."

6. Aoŋ, one, and all the multiples of ten, take their nouns in the singular number; as, aoŋ lá, one day; céad ceaŋŋ, a hundred heads (lit. "a hundred head);" tri caoʒad laoċ, "three times fifty heroes;" ṁíle beaŋ, "a thousand women."

7. Dá, two, takes both the article and the noun in the singular number; and if the noun be feminine, it will be in the dative form; as ḋá ꝼeaꞃ, two men; aŋ dá laiṁ, the two hands. (See next two rules).

8. If the noun following dá be in the genitive, it will be in the genitive plural; as, láŋ a ḋá láṁ, "the full of his two hands."

9. Although dá takes the article and noun in the singular, yet the adjectives and pronouns referring to the noun will be in the plural, and the noun may also take the plural verb; as, do ʒluaiꞅeadaꞃ aŋ dá ṫréiŋṁíleaḋ ꞅiŋ, "these two strong heroes went;" ꞃo ʒaḃ a ḋá ṙleaʒ ċꞃóꝼaiꞃꞅiŋʒe ċꞃaŋŋ-ꞃeaṁꞃa aꞃ ŋa ḃ-ꝼoṫꞃuʒaḋ a ḃ-ꝼuil ŋaṫꞃaċ ŋeiṁe, "he took his two wide-socketed, thick-handled spears, *they* having been bathed in the blood of serpents." Here the two adjectives and the pronoun referring to ꞅleaʒ, are plural.

CHAPTER V.

THE PRONOUN.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. Personal pronouns agree with the nouns they represent, in gender, number, and person; as ıſ ɱaıṫ aŋ ḃeaŋ í, she is a good woman; ıſ ɱaıṫ aŋ ƒeaꞃ é, he is a good man; ıſ ɱóꞃ ŋa ɗaoıŋe ıaɗ, they are great men.

2. A personal pronoun, or a possessive pronoun, which stands for a sentence or part of a sentence, is third person singular masculine; as ɗá ɱ-béıɗíſ ƒıꞃ 'Eıꞃeaŋŋ aŋ ḃaꞃ ŋ-aʒaıɗ, ŋaċ bu ƒeıꞃꞃɗe ɗóıḃ é, "if the men of Erin were against you, they would not be the better of *it;*" (here the pronoun é stands for the sentence).

3. The accusative forms of the personal pronouns are often used as nominatives: always with ıſ, (see Rule 18, page 90), and with passive verbs (see Rule 20, page 91); and sometimes with other verbs; as, ɱáſ ɱaıṫ ŋa leaʒa ſıḃ, aꞃ éıſíoŋ, "'if ye are the good physicians,' says *he.*"

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. A possessive pronoun is never used without a noun.
In English there are distinct forms of the possessive pronouns which can stand without nouns (mine, thine, hers, &c.), but there are no forms corresponding to these in Irish.

2. The possessive pronouns precede their nouns; as ɱo ṁáṫaıꞃ, my mother; a ʒ-caꞃbaɗ, their chariot.

3. The possessives ɱo, my; ɗo, thy; and a, his, aspirate the initials of their nouns; as ɱo ċeaŋŋ, my head; ɗo ċoſ, thy foot; a ṁeuꞃ, his finger.

4. The possessive a, her, requires the initial of its noun in its primitive state (neither aspirated nor eclipsed), and if the initial be a vowel, it prefixes ḫ; as a ɱáṫaıꞃ, her mother; a ḫ-aṫaıꞃ, her father.

5. The possessives áꞃ, our; ḃaꞃ, your; and a, their, eclipse the initial consonants of their nouns (except ſ, on which they exert no influence), and prefix ŋ to vowels; as áꞃ ɗ-ṫíꞃ, our country; ḃaꞃ ɱ-ba, your cows; a ŋ-aṫaıꞃ, their father.

6. Possessive pronouns amalgamated with prepositions (see page 42,) have the same influence over the initials of their nouns, as they have in their uncompounded state; as ɗoɱ ċꞃoıɗe, to my heart; óŋa ɗ-ṫíꞃ, from their country.

7. The manner of using the emphatic increase after the possessive pronouns has been already pointed out in Par. 3, page 42. For an additional Rule of possessives, see Rule 2, above.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The relative follows its antecedent and precedes its verb; as, an té a ṡuḃalfaṡ, the person who shall walk.

2. The relative aspirates the initial of its verb; as, an laoċ a ṁaṛḃ an t-aṫaċ, "the hero who slew the giant." To this the next rule is an exception.

3. When the relative a signifies "all that," (see Par. ?, page 43), it eclipses the initial of its verb; as, a ḃ-fuil ó Ꞅhailliḃ buḋ ḋeaṡ, "all that is from Galway southwards;" do ṛéiṛ a n-duḃṛaṁaṛ, "according to *what* we have said."

4. When the relative a is governed by a preposition, expressed or understood, and is followed immediately by a verb to which it is not the nominative, the initial of the verb (except ṡ) is eclipsed; as, a ṡé niḋ iṁoṛṛa dá d-táinic a ḃáṡ "(the following) is the circumstance, indeed, *from which came* his death;" an ḃoit ina n-iṫidíṡ, "the tent in which they used to eat;" a duḃairt Fionn ꝫo n-dionꝫnaḋ (ṡíṫ) ꝫiḋ bé nóṡ a n-dionꝫnaḋ Diarmaid í, "Finn said that he would make (peace) in whatever manner Diarmaid would make it" (here the preposition ann is understood: ꝫiḋ bé nóṡ "ann" a n-dionꝫnaḋ Diarmaid í, whatever the manner *in which* Diarmaid would make it. (See next rule.)

5. If, in the case stated in the last rule, the verb is in the past tense, with the particle ṛo or do, the initial of the verb is not eclipsed, but aspirated (see Pars. 1 and 4, pages 50 and 51): as, áit aṛ ṫuit Daṛa Deaṛꝫ, "the place in which fell Dara Dearg."

6. The relative precedes the verb which governs it in the accusative (as in English); as, an tíṛ a ꝫṛaḋuiꝫim, the country which I love.

7. As the relative has no inflection for case, the construction must determine whether the relative is the nominative to the verb which follows it, or is governed by it in the accusative; as, an caṛa a ꝫṛaḋuiꝫiḋ mé, the friend whom I love; an caṛa a ꝫṛaḋuiꝫeaṡ mé, the friend who loves me.

8. The relative is often omitted both in the nominative and in the accusative; as, óꝫlaoċ do ṁuinntiṛ Níṅ mic Péil, ṫainic uaiḋ do ḃṛat na 'Eiṛionn, "a youth of the people of Nin Mac Peil (who) came from him to view Erin." An leaḃaṛ ṛo ṡċṛiṡḃ (Cambṛenṡiṡ) do ṫuaṛaṡꝫḃail 'Eiṛionn, "the book (which) Cambrensis wrote on the history of Erin."

9. The relative a is often disguised by combination with other words and particles, especially with ṛo, the mark of the past tense; as, an tíṛ óṛ ṫáinic me, "the country from which I came" (here óṛ=ó a ṛo); pláiꝫ léṛ maṛḃaḋ noí míle díoḃ, "a plague, by which were killed nine thousand of them" (here léṛ=le a ṛo); an tíṛ dá d-tainic ṡé, the country to which he came (dá=do a); lá daṛ comóṛaḋ aonaċ le ṛiꝫ 'Eiṛeann,

"a day on which was convoked an assembly by the king of Erin" (dar=do a ro); ní ḃeaȝ lıomsa ar ṙloınneas ḟéın mar eırıc, "I do not think it little what I have named as an *eric*." Ar=a ro, in which a means "all that," (see Par. 3, page 43).

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. The demonstrative pronouns follow their nouns or pronouns; as, an ḟear sın, "that man;" cıa h-é sın? "who is that?"

Exception—When the verb ıs in any of its forms is understood; as, súd ḃar ȝ-cuıd, "yonder (is) your meal;" so an lá, "this is the day."

2. If the noun be followed by one or more adjectives, the demonstrative pronoun comes last; as, cıa an ḟear ballaċ bınn-ḃrıaṫraċ úd? "Who is that freckled, sweet-worded man?"

V. INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. A interrogative pronoun comes first in the sentence; as, cá ḃ-ḟuıl mo leaḃar? "where is my book?" cıa an laoċ úd ar ġualaınn Ȝhoıll? "who is that hero at the shoulder of Goll?"

This rule holds good even when the interrogative is governed by a preposition, *i.e.*, the preposition follows the interrogative that it governs; as, cad as tú? "out of what (place art) thou?" ȝo de mar tá tú? "how do you do?" (literally "like to what art thou?") creud ḟá ar eırġeaḃar? "what for did ye rise?"

2. When uıle precedes its noun, it means "every;" when it follows the noun it means "all;" as, slán ón uıle ġalar, "sound from every sickness;" do baṫad an cıne daona ȝo h-aon oċtar, "all the human race was drowned, all to (except) a single eight."

There are occasional exceptions; as, droŋȝ aınḃḟıosaċ ıs na h-uıle ṙubáılcıḃ, "people ignorant in *all* virtues" (in this passage, from Keating, uıle means "all," though it precedes its noun).

CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

1. As a general rule the verb precedes its nominative; as, do ġluaıs Ferȝus, "Fergus went;" do claoıḋead Mac Ȝarraıḋ, "Mac Garraidh was defeated." (See next Rule).

2. When the nominative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, it precedes the verb; and sometimes also in poetry, the nominative, even though a noun, precedes the verb; as, an te a ṙıuḃalḟas, "the person who will walk;" creud atá annso? "what is here?" Oeóraıḋṫe síora, ȝan sȝıṫ ȝan sos míanaıd,

a d-tír ·r a n-dúṫċar, "perpetual exiles, without pause or rest, long-for their country and their native-home."

3. When the verb is transitive, *i.e.*, when it governs the accusative (see Rule 9, below), the usual order is verb, nominative, object; as, do aiȝel Conċobar Borać, "Conchobhar addressed Borach;" do líon Ȝráinne an corn, "Grainne filled the goblet."

4. But when the accusative is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, the usual order is, pronoun (or accusative), verb, nominative; "as, an laoċ a ċonairc mé ané, "the hero *whom I saw* yesterday;" cad deir tú? "what sayest thou?"

5. When the verb tá is used, the usual order is, verb, nominative, predicate; as, táid na reulta ro-lonnraċ, "the stars are very bright."

6. When the verb ir, expressed or understood, is used, the usual order is, verb, predicate, nominative; as, ba ḃinne a ȝlór ná ceól ná n-éun, "*her voice was sweeter* than the music of the birds:' ní ƒada uait an áit, "not (is) far from thee the place."

Exception—If the article is used before the predicate, or if the predicate is a proper name, the order is, verb, subject, predicate; as, ir tura an tír ro-aoiḃinn, "thou art the delightful country;" ir mé Cían, mac Cáinte, "I am Cian, the son of Cainte;" an tu Finn? "art thou Finn?"

7. The only cases in which there is agreement between the verb and its nominative, are (1) when the nominative and verb are both third person singular; (2) when a noun or pronoun in third plural has a verb in third plural, in accordance with Par. 9, page 45.

It may be doubted whether (1) is a gennine case of agreement; and the general absence of agreement between verb and nominative is further exemplified in the following rule:—

8. When two or more nouns, whether singular or plural, joined by a conjunction, are nominatives to one verb, the verb has the third person singular form; as, do ġluair Breas aȝur na draoiṫe rómpa, "Breas and the druids went forward."

9. A transitive verb governs the noun or pronoun which is the object of the action, in the accusative case; as, buail é, "strike him;" do ċuireadar Tuaṫa De Danann ceó draoiḋeaċta i n-a d-timċeall ƒéin, "the Tuatha de Dananns *put* a magical *mist* around themselves."

10. The initial of a verb in the infinitive mood is aspirated, unless the aspiration is prevented by some special influence.

11. The preposition le or re before the infinitive active often gives it a passive signification; as, (leaḃair eile) atá re ḃ-ƒaicsin i n-'Eirinn, "(other books) which are *to be seen* in Erin."

But in many such constructions the preposition expresses purpose, and the signification is active; as, aʒuɾ ʒo m-bíd ollaṁ ɾe déɲaṁ ƒeɪlle aɪɾ a ċéɪle, "and that they are ready *to do* treachery on each other."

12. The infinitive, even without the preposition le, has often a passive signification; as, Fɪaċɾa, mac Aɪleɲe, tɪʒ̇eaɾɲa Wuʒ̇d̆oɾɲ, do ṁaɾb̆ad̆, "Fiachra, son of Ailene, lord of Mourne, to be slain" (lit. "Fiachra, &c., to slay"): aʒuɾ aɲ ƒeaɾ ɲaċ tɪob̆ɾad̆ (aɲ ċíoɾ) ɾɪɲ uaɪd̆, a ṙɾóɲ do b̆uaɪɲ óɲa ċeaɲɲ de, "and the man who would not pay that tribute from him, his nose *to be cut* off from his head."

13. One verb governs another that follows it or depends upon it in the infinitive mood; as da m-bad̆ ɲaċ ɾaċƒad̆ claɲɲa Woɪɾɲe d'ɪaɾɾaɪd̆ ɲa ʒ-caoɾ ɾɪɲ, "if it were so that the Clann Morna *had not come to seek* those berries."

The following very important rule was first enunciated by O'Donovan, and is given here in his own words ("Irish Grammar," page 387):

14. "When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern the accusative, the sign do is never prefixed; as, dub̆aɪɾt ɾé lɪom dul ʒo Coɾcaɪʒ̇, 'he told me to go to Cork.'"

15. If the noun which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood follows the verb, it is in the genitive case; as, taɲʒadaɾ cab̆laċ móɾ do d̆éaɲaṁ coʒuɪd̆, "a great fleet came *to make war*" (nom. coʒad̆. war: gen. coʒuɪd̆); do ṁɪllead̆ ċloɪɲɲe Lɪɾ, "to kill the children of Lir."

16. A noun or pronoun, which is the object of a transitive verb in the infinitive mood, often precedes the verb, and in this case it is (not in the genitive, as in the last rule, but) in the accusative; as, aʒuɾ ɪɾead̆ do ʒ̇ɲɪod̆, dá ċuaɪlle do ċuɾ ɪ d-talṁaɪɲ aʒuɾ ceaɲɲ aɲ t-ɾnáɪṫe do ċeaɲʒal da ʒaċ cuaɪlle d̆ɪob̆, aʒuɾ ub̆all do ċuɾ aɪɾ ṁullaċ cuaɪlle aca, "and it is what he used to do, *two poles to put* in the earth, and *the end* of a thread *to tie* to each pole of them, and *an apple to put* on the top of a pole of them."

17. The active participle of a transitive verb governs the noun which is the object of the action, in the genitive case; as, aʒ bɾuɪṫɲead̆ aɲ óɪɾ, "smelting the gold" (lit. "smelting of the gold"); do b̆í aɲ Ʒaod̆al ɾo aʒ múɲad̆ ɾcol, "this Gaodhal was teaching schools" (lit. "teaching of schools"); aʒ toċaɪlt ɲa talṁaɲ, "digging the ground."

18. The verb ɪɾ in any of its forms, expressed or understood, takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as, ɪɾ í céadƒad̆ dɾoɪɲʒe ɾe ɾeaɲċuɾ, "*it* is the opinion of some historians;" ɪɾ mɪc ɾɪʒ̇ ʒo ƒíɾɪɲɲeaċ ɪad, "*they* are truly

sons of a king;" agus flaithiúnaigh an tuí cia h-iad féin, "and the king asks who *they* (are)."

19. The verb is very often omitted, especially in negative and interrogative sentences, and in answer to questions; as, beatha an tseanaidhe fíonnghe, "truth (is) the food of the historian;" ceann Dhiarmuda Uí Dhuibhne an ceann úd, "that head (is) the head of Diarmaid O'Duibhne;" cia tusa? mise Iollan, "who (art) thou? I (am) Iollan;" an fíor sin? "whether (is) that true?" ní mise, "(it is) not I."

20. A verb in the passive voice takes the accusative form of a personal pronoun as its nominative; as, déantar é, "it is done;" buaileadh iad, "they are struck."

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

1. A simple preposition governs the dative (including the ablative, for which there is no distinct inflection); as, thainic sé go Corcaigh, "he came *to Cork*," as cois an t-sléibhe, "*at the foot* of the mountain;" aimhdh cuid do na h-úghdaraibh, "some *of the authors* reckon." (See next rule for exception).

2. The preposition idir generally governs the accusative in the singular, and the dative in the plural; as, idir Corcaċ agus Luimneaċ, "between Cork and Limerick;" idir na cóigeadaibh, "between the provinces."

3. The prepositions ann, go, iar, ria, le or re, and tar, take s before an, the article, the s being sometimes joined with the preposition and sometimes with the article; as, annsan leabhar, or ann san leabhar, "in the book;" leis an bhfear, "with the man." (See Par. 7, page 21).

4. The compound prepositions govern their nouns in the genitive; as, do thug an tonna leis a n-aghaidh an chuic, "he brought the tun with him *against the hill;* a bhfiadhnuise bhfear n-Eirionn, "*in presence of the men* of Erin;" do ghluaiseadar clann Tuireann romhpa d'ionnsuidhe an chatha, "the children of Tuireann went forwards *towards the battle.*"

The following prepositions, chum, towards; thala, as to; dheis, after; iomchura, as to; measg or ameasg, amongst; réir, according to; and timchioll, about, although having the form of simple prepositions, are in reality compound, and take their nouns in the genitive. (See end of Par 3, page 73).

As a compound preposition consists of a noun governed by a simple preposition, it is in reality the noun-part of the compound preposition that governs the noun in the genitive, in accord-

ance with Rule 1, page 79: thus, the expression above, a ŋ-aġaiḋ aŋ ċŋuic, is literally "in the face of the hill," where ċŋuic is governed in the genitive by aġaiḋ, face; and so of the others.

5. The simple prepositions, except do, de, ʒaŋ, and idir, generally cause eclipsis in singular nouns when the article is used; as, ó'ŋ ʒ-cŋoc sin, "from that hill;" aʒ aŋ m-baile na h-iŋse, ṡíar, "at the town of the island, in the west." (See page 22).

6. The simple prepositions generally cause aspiration when the article is not expressed; as, air ḃarr aŋ ċroiŋŋ, "on the top of the tree;" ó ṁúraiḃ na Teaṁraċ, "from the ramparts of Tara."

Exception 1: a or i, iar, and ʒo (when it means "with") cause eclipsis without the article; as, a m-baile-aċa-cliaċ, "in Baile-atha-cliath (Dublin);" iar ŋ-Oíliŋŋ, "after the Deluge."

Exception 2: aʒ, le, and sometimes ʒo cause no change in the initial, and ʒaŋ may either aspirate or not; as, slán le Waiġ, "farewell to (the river) Maigue;" "o'ŋ t-Sioŋuiŋŋ sior ʒo ꝼairrʒe, "from the Shannon east *to the sea*."

7. When a simple preposition ending in a vowel comes before the possessive a (whether it signifies *his*, *her*, or *their*), the letter ŋ is inserted between the vowels; as, tre ŋ-a ḃasaiḃ, "*through his* hands;" aŋ lá ʒo ŋ-a láŋ t-siollse, "the day *with its* abundant light."

Except after do and de; as, taḃair ꝼéur d'á ċapall, "give grass to his horse;" baiŋ ʒeuʒ d'á ʒ-craŋŋ, "take a branch from their tree."

Before any other word beginning with a vowel, the letter h is usually inserted after these prepositions; as, do ċuaiḋ sé ʒo h Albaiŋ, "he went to Alban (Scotland)."

PART IV.

IDIOMS.

An idiom, in the sense in which it is used here, may be defined:—An expression that has acquired by usage a certain meaning, which becomes lost in a word-for-word translation into another language; so that in order to convey the true meaning in that other language, the form of expression must be changed.

Thus, "cá an leabar aig an duine" is an idiom, for its sense is lost in the word-for-word translation, "the book is at the man;" and, in order to convey the true meaning, the English expression must be changed to "the man *has* the book."

Idioms constitute one of the chief difficulties in learning any language; and the student is recommended to master this Part, in which the principal idioms of the Irish language are explained and illustrated.

1. The Infinitive governing Possessive Pronouns.

The infinitive of a transitive verb governs its object in the genitive (Syntax, Rule 15, page 90). When the object, instead of being a noun, is a personal pronoun, then, according to the analogy of the Rule quoted, it should be in the genitive case. But the genitive of a personal pronoun is a possessive pronoun; and possessive pronouns precede the words they refer to; so that the pronoun which represents the object of the action, is a possessive, and precedes the infinitive, influencing its intial as if it were a noun (see Syntax, page 86, Rules 3, 4, 5). This gives rise to idiomatic expressions like the following, which are of very frequent occurrence:—

	English.	Irish.	Contracted to.
To strike	me,	do mo bualad,	dom' bualad.
	thee,	do do bualad,	dod' bualad.
	him,	do a bualad,	da bualad.
	her,	do a bualad,	da bualad.
	us,	do ar m-bualad,	dar m-bualad.
	you,	do bur m-bualad,	(not contracted).
	them,	do a m-bualad,	da m-bualad.

These may be translated literally, "to my striking" "to their striking," &c.

A like construction prevails in the case of a transitive participle: ag a bualad, "striking him;" ag a bualad, "striking her;" ag ar m-bualad, "striking us," &c. In this construction the par-

ticiple may itself be governed in the genitive case by a noun:—tá1ŋ1c mían a maṁḃa ðam féin, "a desire to kill them, has come to me" (lit. "a desire of the killing of them," or "of their killing.")

2. Compound Prepositions governing Possessive Pronouns.

A compound preposition governs the genitive (Rule 4, page 91); and when the governed word is not a noun but a personal pronoun, this last becomes a possessive, and goes before the noun-part of the compound preposition, giving rise to idiomatic phrases, corresponding with those quoted in last Idiom. Example: air son, for the sake of; air a son, for his sake; air bur son, for your sake, &c. Do ċuaiḋ Diarmaid da h-éir, "Diarmaid went after her;" tá1ŋ1c tinneas orra féin, agus an a slioċt 'n-a n-diaiḋ, "sickness came upon themselves, and on their posterity after them."

A similar construction often occurs with the compound adverbs. Example: tar air, "backwards;" do ċuaiḋ sé tar a air, "he went backwards;" do ċuaiḋ sí tar a h-air, "she went backwards;" do ċuaiḋ siad tar a n-air, "they went backwards," &c.

3. To die.

"To die," is very often expressed in Irish by a phrase meaning "to find death:" the verb faġ, find, being used for this purpose, in its various forms; as, an dara bliaġain da éis sin fuair Juial bás, "the second year after that Irial *found death*;" agus más ann atá a n-dán dam bás d'faġail, "and if it be here that it is in fate for me death to find" (*i.e.*, "that it is fated for me to die.")

There is, however, a single verb d'eug, meaning to die, but it is not used so often as the above. The following example exhibits both forms:—A deir cuid do na seanuġdaraiḃ gur ab a n-Gleann da loċa fuair Naoṁ Padruig bás; bíoḋ go n-abraiḋ druiḋ oile gurab ann Ardṁaċa d'eug sé, "some of the old authors say that it is in Glendalough St. Patrick found death, although another party say that it is in Armagh he died."

4. Nominative Absolute.

What is called the nominative absolute in English is expressed in Irish by the preposition air (on), or iar (after), placed before the participle, and the preposition do (to) before the noun; which will be understood from the following examples:—ar m-beiṫ aṫa fada do Chormac ag a ḃ-peiṫiom, "Cormac having been a long time watching them" (lit. "on being a long time to Cormac a-watching of them"): agus air m-beiṫ ollamh don luing, "and the ship being ready" (lit. "and on being ready to the ship"); agus iar n-dul a luing dóib, "and they having gone

into a ship:" (lit. "and on going into a ship to them") : ſaṙ ṁ-beſṫ tṙéaṅ ſṙ aṅ tíṙ dóſḃ, "they having grown strong in the country" (lit. "after being strong in the country to them.')

5. To have no help for a thing.

The Irish phrase corresponding to this is "to have no strength (ṅeaṙt) on a thing:" the *having* being expressed in accordance with Idiom 34. Níḃ-ḟuſl ṅeaṙt aʒaṁ aſṙ aṅ ṅíḋ ſiṅ, "I have no help for that thing—I cannot help that" (lit. "there is to me no strength on that thing"). Aʒuſ duḃaſṙt Ʒṙáſṅṅe ṅaċ ṙaſḃ ṅeaṙt aſce ḟéſṅ aſṙ, "and Grainne said that she had no help for it" (or "could not help it," "could not have prevented it"). Sometimes léſġeaſ, remedy or cure, is used in the same way as ṅeaṙt.

6. To cause a thing to be done.

To cause a thing to be done, to have it done, to see that it is done, is often expressed in Irish by do ċuṙ (or do ṫaḃaſṙt) ḟá deaṙa, "to put (or bring, or give,) under notice." Aʒuſ ṙo ċuſṙ Mioḋaċ ḟa ṅ-deaṙa úſṙ Iṅſe Tuſle do ċuṙ ḟúſḃ, "and Miodhach caused the mould (or soil) of Inis Tuile to be placed under you;" do ṙuʒ (ṙíġ) bṙeaṫ báſṙ aſṙ aṅ ṁ-bṙeſṫeaṁ, aʒuſ ṫuʒ ḟa deaṙa a ċṙoċaḋ, "(the king), passed sentence of death on the judge, and had him hanged" ("put under notice him to hang," or "his hanging").

7. Number of individuals of which a company is composed.

The number of individuals of which any collection of persons or things is made up, is often inserted, in the nominative form, in a narrative sentence, without any syntatical connection with the rest of the sentence. Aʒuſ táſṅſc Liṙ ṙóſṁe aṙṅaṁáṙaċ, caoʒat caſṙḟṫeaċ, ó Shíot Buſḋḃ Deſṙʒ, "and Lir set out on the morrow, fifty chariot-men, from Shee Bove Derg" (*i.e.*, *with* chariots); aʒuſ taſṅſc Boḋḃ Deaṙʒ, ṅaoſ céaḋ ḟſṫċeaḋ, da ṅ-ſoṅṅſuſġe; "and Bove Derg came, twenty-nine hundred men, towards them."

This is like the English:—"The Duke began his march next morning, 20,000 strong."

8. Passive Verbs used impersonally.

A passive verb is often used impersonally; as, ʒaḃſa ċuʒaſṅṅ aṁaċ, aʒuſ níl laṁḟaṙ ḟuſlſuġaḋ oṙt, "come forth to us, and no one will dare to wound thee:" (literally, "and *it will not be dared* [to put] wounding on thee").

This form of expression is of very frequent occurrence in the older narrative writings:—thus, instead of "they advance; they plunge into the (river) Crond," the writer expresses himself in this way:—"it is advanced; it is plunged into the Crond."

9. Nominatives before Infinitives and Participles.

Instead of the usual assertive construction, consisting of a verb with its nominative (noun or pronoun), the following construction is often adopted:—the verb is put in the infinitive or participial form, and the subject (whether noun or personal pronoun) is placed before it, the pronoun being placed in the accusative form (but whether the noun is nominative or accusative cannot be determined, as there is no distinction of form); as, ıs aṁlaıḋ b́í Naısı agus Déırdre, agus an ċenṅċaıṁ etarṙa, agus ıad ag ımırt uırre, "it is in this manner Naisi and Deirdre were (seated), and the Cennchaimh (a chess board) between them, *and they playing on it;*" ıs aṁlaıḋ do b́í Cob́ṫaċ, agus é ag seargaḋ, "it is thus Cobhtach was, *and he* pining away;" cuırıos sceula go bláṫnuıd é féın do b́eıṫ ann sın, "he sends word to Blanid, *he* himself *to be* there" (*i.e.*, "that he himself was there").

This form of expression is often adopted, even when the verb or participle is (not expressed but) understood; as, do ċuır (an ċú) a ceann a n-uċt Dhıarmuda agus é ına ċodla "(the hound) put her head in the breast of Diarmaid, *and he in his sleep.*"

10. One person meeting another.

"Donall met Fergus" is often expressed in Irish in the following way:—Do casaḋ Fergus aır Doṁnall; literally, "Fergus was met (or turned) on Donall." Do casaḋ Aoıb́ell na Craıge léıṫe oruınn, "we met Eevel of Craglea" (lit. "Eevel of Craglea was met [or turned] on us"): cıa casfaıḋe orm aċt stuaıḋ-b́ean, "whom should I meet but the fair woman" ("who should be met on me").

The same idea is expressed by the verb ṫarla, happened: agus tarla oglaċ orrṫa ar m-bogaċ,, "and they met a youth on the moor" (lit. "and a youth happened on [or to] them"); trıalluıd go Slıab́ Wıs go ttárla Banba go n-a draoıṫıb́ orra ann, "they travel to Slieve Mish, until they met Banba with her druids there" ("until Banba with her druids happened on [or to] them there").

11. Although: Although not.

Gıon go, or gıon gur, has two opposite meanings which can only be distinguished by the general sense of the passage: sometimes "although" (or "although that"), and sometimes "although not."

Although:—a Fhınn, ar Ósgar, gıon gur foıgse mo ġaol duıtse ná do Dhıarmuıd Ó'Dhuıb́ne, "'O Finn,' says Oscar, 'although my relationship with thee is nearer than to Diarmaid O'Duibhne.'"

Although not:—do b́érum cóṁaırle ṁaıṫ d́íb́, a Chlaınn Uısnıġ, gıon go n-déntar lıb́ í, "I shall give a good counsel to

you, O sons of Usna, though it will not be done by you;" ʒɪoŋ ʒuɾ ċeáɾɾɗ mŋá aŋ ŋíɗ ɾɪŋ, "*although* that proceeding would *not* be the business of a woman."

12. To be able.

To be able to do a thing is expressed in different ways. The most usual is by phrases of the type, ɪɾ ƒéɪɗɪɾ le, "it is possible with;" as, ɪɾ ƒeɪɗɪɾ lɪom a ɗéaŋaɗ, "I can do it" (lit. "it is possible with me to do it"). See Idiom 1.

Another, and more idiomatic way, is by the verb tɪʒɪm, "I come," in its various moods and tenses; and with this verb "I can do," or "I am able to do," is expressed by "it comes with me to do;" as, muŋa ɗ-tɪʒeaɗ ɾɪɾ aŋ ċaɪlleaċ ɗ'amaɾ, "unless he would be able to strike the hag" (lit. "unless it would come with him the hag to strike"); aċt ŋɪoɾ ɗoɪlʒe ɾɪŋŋ ɪŋá ɾɪŋ maɾ atáɪɗ áɾ ɗ-tɾí ƒéɪŋŋɪɗe ceaŋʒaɪlte ɪŋáɾ ḃ-ƒɪaɗ-ŋuɪɾe, aʒuɾ ŋaċ ɗ-tɪʒ ɾɪŋŋ ɾʒaoɪleaɗ ɗíoḃ, "and we think more grievous than that, how our three champions are bound in our presence, and that we are not able to free them;" ŋí ċuɪɾ-eaŋŋ ualaċ oɾɾaɪŋŋ ŋaċ ɗ-tɪʒ lɪŋŋ a ɪomċaɾ, "he puts not a burden on us that we are not able to bear."

Sometimes the verb tá or ɪɾ is used instead of tɪʒ, and also the preposition aʒ instead of le; as, ó ŋaċ lɪom ɗul óŋ ʒ-coŋtaḃaɪɾt ɾo, "since I cannot escape from this danger" ("since it *is* not with me to go from this danger": here ɪɾ is understood); ó ŋaċ ḃ-ƒuɪl ɗul uaɪɗ aʒum, "since I cannot escape from him" ("since it is not with me to go from him"): here tá and aʒ are used, as in "possession:" Idiom 34.

13. One of a pair.

One of a pair is often expressed by the word leaṫ, half; leaṫ-ċoɾ, "one foot" (lit. "half-foot"). In this compound the word leaṫ is used adjectively, so that leaṫ-ċoɾ means, not half *of* a foot, but a *half*-foot (*i.e.*, a foot which is itself a half, *i.e.*, half of a pair). So also leaṫ-ṙúɪl, "one eye;" leaṫ-taoḃ, "one side," &c. Jɾ aṁlaɪɗ ɗo ḃɪ aŋ ɾɪġ ɾɪŋ aʒuɾ leaṫ-laṁ aɪɾʒɪɗ aɪɾ, "it is thus that king was, and one hand of silver on him."

14. To be alone.

The word aoŋaɾ, which the dictionaries now interpret as meaning "alone," was originally a concrete numeral noun like tɾɪúɾ, cúɪʒeaɾ, &c. (page 37), and meant "one person;" and this meaning it retains to some extent in its present application:—ɗo ṙɪuḃal mé a'm aoŋaɾ, "I walked alone" (lit. "I walked in my one person" [see Idiom 42]: or "I walked as one person"); ɗo ṙɪuḃal tú aɗ' aoŋaɾ, "thou walkedst alone;" ɗo ṙɪuḃal ɾí ŋ-a

h-aonar, "she walked alone," &c.; am aonar real a sjubal bjdear, "alone, of a time, walking I was."

Another way of saying in Irish "he is alone" is "he is with himself:"*tá mé ljom féjn, "I am alone ("I am with myself"): tá tú leat féjn, "thou art alone;" tá sjad leo féjn, "they are alone;" tá mo ṁájtrín 'n-a codlad, agus mjse ljom féjn, "my mother is asleep, and I am alone."

15. One thing given for another.

When you give or take, sell or buy, one thing for another, it is expressed in Irish by saying you give it &c., *on* that other, the preposition ajr being used. Do ṫug sé trí ba ajr an g-capall sjn, "he gave three cows for that horse;" ajr 'Ejre ní 'neósajnn cja h-í, "for Erin I would not tell who she is" ('neósajnn for jnneósajnn, see page 54).

In this sense, the preposition ajr is set before the noun of price; do ċeannujġear an bó bán sjn ajr sé pújnt, "I bought that white cow for six pounds;" ní h-jongna, ar Cormac, ójr jr majṫ an luaċ tugar ujrre, "'No wonder,' says Cormac, 'for good is the price I gave for it.'"

16. Debt.

The fact that Donall owes Fergus money, or that Donall is under any obligation to pay money to Fergus, is expressed by saying, "Fergus has money on Donall," the preposition ajr being used before the name of the debtor, and the act of "having" being expressed by tá and ag as in Idiom 34. Tá trí pújnt ag Fergus ajr Doṁnall, "Donall owes three pounds to Fergus;" tá bean ejle a n Eocajll a b-fujl ajcj corójn ajr, "there is another woman in Youghal to whom he owes a crown" ("to whom is a crown on him"); jr aṁlajd do bí an ríġ so, agus cíos cájn mór trom ag Fomorajġ ar Tuaṫa Dé Danann re n-a ljnn, "it is how this king was, and (that) the Fomorians had a great heavy tribute and rule over the Tuatha De Dananns during his time" ("a great heavy tribute and rule was with the Fomorians on the Tuatha De Dananns").

17. Asking, entreating, &c.

To ask, request, entreat, or demand of a person, is expressed by "to ask, &c., *on* that person:" jarr ajr Ohja na grása sjn, "ask of God those graces."

18. Sensation, suffering, &c.

That a person is hungry, thirsty, cold, afraid, sick, &c., is expressed in Irish by saying that hunger, thirst, cold, fear, sickness, &c., is *on* him, the preposition ajr being used: tá fuact orm ("cold is on me"), "I am cold;" ná bíod eagla ort ("let not fear be on thee"), "be not afraid;" do bí tart mór ajr Sheaġan

("great thirst was on John"), "John was very thirsty;" cad é ſiñ oṙt? ("what is that on thee?') "what ails you?" A ċuiſle mo ċṙoiḋe, cṙeud í an ġṙuaim ſin oṙt? "O pulse of my heart, what is that frown on thee?"

19. One person entertaining feelings (of love, hatred, &c.) towards another.

That Donall entertains certain feelings towards Fergus is expressed by saying that Donall *has* such feelings *on* Fergus; the preposition aiṙ being used before "Fergus," and the act of "having" being expressed by tá and aġ, as in Idiom 34:—ní mó an cion ṙo ḃá aġ Aonġuſ oṙtſa iná an cion ṙo ḃá aġ muiṅtiṙ Aonġuſa aṙ ṁac an ṙeaċtaiṙe, ġo ṙaiḃ ꝼoṙmad móṙ aṙ t'aṫaiṙ ꝼá n-a ċioṅn ſin, "not greater was the affection Aonghus felt for thee than the affection the people of Aonghus felt for the son of the steward, so that thy father felt great jealousy on that account" (lit. "not greater was the affection which was with Aonghus on thee, ... so that great jealousy was on thy father on the head of that:" see Idiom 32).

Where the agent is not specified, a similar form of expression is retained: you are loved, is expressed by love is on you; you are esteemed, by estimation is on you, &c.; tá meaſ aġuſ cion móṙ aiṙ Oſcaṙ ("great esteem and love are on Oscar"), "Oscar is greatly *esteemed and loved.*"

20. To know: to know a person.

To know is usually expressed in Irish by the phrase knowledge is with me, I have knowledge; and to know a person by "to have or to give knowledge on a person:" "'aġuſ an ḃ-ꝼuil a ꝼ̇ioſ aġad ꝼéin, a Ꝼhiṅn?' 'ní ḃ-ꝼuil' aṙ Ꝼioṅn:" "'do you know it, O Finn?' 'I do not,' says Finn;" (lit. "is its knowledge with you, O Finn?" "It is not," says Finn): an á-l leat ꝼioſ d'ꝼ́áġail? "do you wish to know?" ("is it a desire with you knowledge to get?"; bioḋ a ꝼ̇ioſ aġat, a leuġṫóiṙ, "know, O reader" ("be its knowledge with thee, O reader'): (strangers are seen coming towards Finn and his party), ṙo ꝼ̇iaꝼṙaiġ Ꝼioṅn do ċáċ an d-tuġadaṙ aiṫne oṙṙṫa, "Finn asked of the others did they know them" (lit. "did they put knowledge on them"); aġuſ tuġaiſſe aiṫne oṙm, "and thou knewest me" (lit. "and thou didst put knowledge on me").

21. To part from: to separate from.

To separate from a person is expressed in Irish by "to separate *with* a person," the preposition le or ṙe being used: much in the same manner as we say in English, "I parted with him:" ſcaṙadaṙ ꝼéin aġuſ Diaṙmaid ṙe n-a ċéile, "they themselves and Diarmaid separated from each other;" do ſcaṙ ſé

ꞃiꞃꞃ,-"he separated from us;"' ꞅcaꞃ Oꞅcaꞃ le Diaꞃmaid, "Oscar separated from Diarmaid;" do ꞅcaꞃ ꞃiꞅ, "he separated from him;" aꝫ Cuꞃꞃaċ Ċill'-daꞃa do ꞅcaꞃaꞅ le ꝫꞃad̈ mo ċꞃoid̈e, "at the Curragh of Kildare I parted from the 'love of my heart.'"

22. However great, however good, however brave, &c.

Da placed before some abstract nouns gives a meaning which, though it is well understood in practical use, has puzzled grammarians to analyse and explain, and which will be best understood by a few examples. From the adjective álaiꞃꞃ, fine or beautiful, is formed áilꞃe or áille, fineness, beauty; and da áilꞃe or da áille, means "however fine," "how fine soever." Examples:—Ní b̈-ꝼuil ꝑioꞃúꞅ dá ṁeud, ꞃaċ d-tuilliḋ, "there is no punishment however great that they do not deserve;" aꞃ tꞃeaꞅ ʒ̇eiꞅ, ʒaꞃ coṁꞃaʒ aoiꞃḟiꞃ dá ṫꞃéiꞅi aiꞃ talṁaiꞃ d'obad̈, "the third injunction, not to refuse single combat to any man on earth, however mighty;" deaṁaꞃ ꞃá diab̈al dá ṫꞃéiꞅe laṁ, "demon or devil, however mighty of hand."

23. Both one and another: both these and those.

Both, in such phrases as "both men and women," is often expressed in Irish by the preposition idiꞃ, between; as, baiꞃꝼid̈ Dia ꞅáꞅaṁ diob̈ aꞃꞃ ʒaċ ꞅoċaꞃ d'á d tuʒ dóib̈ idiꞃ ċeill, ceadꝼad̈aib̈, aʒuꞅ coꞃaċ ṡaoʒ̇alta, "God will exact an account from them in every advantage He has given to them, *between* understanding, senses, and worldly prosperity:" ċúiʒ míle idiꞃ ꝼeaꞃaib̈ aʒuꞅ mꞃáib̈, "five thousand, between men and women (*i.e.*, both men and women, or reckoning men and women)."

24. To overtake.

To overtake a person is often expressed by "to bear on a person," the verb beiꞃ, bear, being used with the preposition aiꞃ. Examples:—Ꝼáʒb̈aṁ aꞃ tulaċ ꞅo aꞃ eaʒla ʒo m-beaꞃꝼad̈ Aoꞃʒuꞅ aꞃ bhꞃoʒ̇a oꞃꞃuiꞃꞃ, "let us leave this hill, for fear that Aonghus of the Brugh would overtake us;" leaꞃuꞅ aiꞃ a loꞃʒ ʒo ꞃéiṁd̈íꞃeaċ iad do'ꞃ Whúṁaiꞃ, ʒo ꞃuʒ oꞃꞃa aʒ Solċóid, "he follows them on their track directly to Munster, so that he overtook them at Solchoid:" ʒo ꞃaċ ꝼúiʒꝼidíꞅ aꞃ ꝼoꞃꞃ ꞅiꞃ ꞃó ʒo m-beiꞃead̈ Waꞃcꞃa Sid̈e oꞃꞃa, "that they might not leave that territory till the fairy cavalcade should overtake them:" ꝼaꞃꝼadꞅa leat aꞃ aꞃ láṫaiꞃ ꞅo ꞃo ʒo m-beiꞃiꞃ oꞃm aꞃíꞅ, "I will wait for thee at this place till thou overtake me again:" ʒaċ aoꞃ aiꞃ a m-béaꞃꝼaiꞃꞃꞅi, "every one whom I would overtake" ("every one on whom I would bear").

25. To win a game on a person.

To win a game on a person is expressed by "to put a game on him:" agur do cóṫ Oiṙín an ṙear rin, agur no cuin an cluiṫċe ar Fhionn, "and Oisin moved that (chess-) man and won a game on Finn:" agur ní ruġamar an báire ar a ċéile, "and we did not win the goal on each other" (*i.e.*, "neither of us won the goal on the other."

26. To think long, short, well of, ill of: to think hot, cold, hateful, &c.

Such phrases as "it seemed long to him," "he thought it lon ," are expressed by the verb ir and the preposition le: ir ṙada liom, ("it is long with me"), "it seems long to me," "I think it long." Agur do bo ṙada le na bráiṫriḃ do bí Brian uaṫa, "and his brothers thought it long that Brian was away from them" ("it was long with his brothers," &c.): ir olc linn ar ḃeag rioṫ, "we think bad of what has happened to thee" ("it is evil with us:" ar=a rio, and a means "all that:" see page 43): tuigimrí nać ionṁuin leaṫra me ṙéin, "I understand that thou dost not love me" ("that not beloved with thee am I myself").

Observe the difference in meaning conveyed by the two prepositions le and do: ir maiṫ é do'n ḃ-ṙear rin, "it is advantageous to that man (whether he thinks it so or not): ir maiṫ é leir an ḃ-ṙear rin, "that man thinks it advantageous" (whether it is really so or not). The following example shows both forms:—ba ṁaiṫ liom riubail, aċt nior ṁaiṫ dam é, "I wished to walk, but it was not good for me."

27. To wish for: to like: to be glad of: to prefer.

After the same manner, a desire, wish, liking for, &c., is expressed by such words as mian, desire; aiṫ, pleasure; áil, will or pleasure &c.: ir áil liom ṙior d'ṙáġail, "I wish to know" ("it is a desire with me knowledge to get"): do cuirṙin ṙéin rúil an ċaiṫ rin ad ḣ-uċt a n-ionad do rúl, ar ṙear dioḃ: do b'aiṫ liom rin, ar an dóirreoin, "'I would put the eye of that cat in thy lap in place of thy eye,' says a man of them. 'I would like that,' says the door-keeper."

The word ṙearr, better, is used in the same way to express preference: ir ṙearr liom do ḋeanḃráṫair na ċura, "I prefer thy brother to thyself:" "I would rather have thy brother than thyself" (lit. "thy brother is better with me," &c.); do b'ṙearr le Brigiḋ leaḃar maiṫ na airgead, "Brigid would prefer a good book to money" (lit. "a good book would be better with Brigid," &c). The following example shows the application of both mian and ṙearr:—Ní ḣ-é ir mian leir an uġdair (ní mo, ní ḣ-é ir mian liom-ra) tú do ḃreugan; . . . . aċt ir é doḃ' ṙearr leir rin (agur liom-ra) do ċroiḋe do ṙeal

b̆uʒ̇ad̆: "it is not what the author wishes (neither is it my wish) to amuse thee (tu do b̆reuʒan) . . . . but it is what he would prefer (and I also,) to possess thy heart."

Feárr followed by le expresses mental preference as shown above: but feárr followed by do is equivalent to the English expression "better for," "better that," &c. Jr feárr d̆omsa anois, ar Luʒ̇, fios na h-earca úd do ṫab̆airt d̆aoib̆. Jr feárr ċeana, ar iadsan, "'it is *better for me* now,' says Lugh, 'a knowledge of that *eric* (fine) to give you.' 'It is better indeed,' say they."

28. To think little of—much of—to grudge.

Similar to the preceding is the use of the words beaʒ and mór (little and much) in several idiomatic phrases, which occur very frequently, and which will be best understood by the following examples:—Jr mór liom an luaċ sin, "I think that price large" ("that price is large with me"): óir dá m-beiṫ mac aʒuinne iona ṡuid̆e romba, níor b̆eaʒ leo do ċúir dár marb̆ad̆, "for if (even) a child of us would be sitting ('in his sitting:' see Idiom 42) before them, they would not deem it (too) little cause to kill us" (lit. "it would not be with them a small [thing] for a cause to kill us:" for dár marb̆ad̆: see Idiom 1): dar mo b̆riaṫar, ar Naisi, ní beʒ linne sin uait, "'by my word,' says Naisi, 'we do not think that small from thee.'"

The two expressions ir mór le and ní b̆eaʒ le ("it is much with, it is not little with) are used to express the idea of unwillingness, or grudging": ir mór liom aon ṗinʒín do tab̆airt dó, "I think it much—I grudge—to give one penny to him." The very same idea is expressed by ní b̆eaʒ liom aon ṗinʒín, &c., "I think it not little—I grudge—one penny, I think one penny enough," &c. The two reverse expressions (ní mór le—ir beaʒ le) are used to express willingness—not grudging &c.: ní mór liom na trí ba so do ṫab̆airt dó, "I do not think it much—I am quite willing—I do not grudge—to give him these three cows;" which might also be expressed by saying, ir beaʒ liom, &c.—"I think it little—I would give more, I would have more, I would want more; I am willing—I do not grudge" &c.—do b̆eirmíd ár m-briaṫar, ar siad, naċ beaʒ linn a m-beuram ʒo Fionn díob̆, "'we give our word,' said they, 'we think it not small—we grudge—what (a = all that,—see page 43) we shall bring of them to Finn." (See Mr. Standish O'Grady's note, in the "Pursuit of Diarmaid and Grainne," page 140.)

When mór and beaʒ are used with the preposition do, they give the idea of enough or not enough *for* a person: níor b̆eaʒ do (marb̆ad̆ b̆ar n-aiṫreaċ) mar eiric uaib̆se, "(the killing of your fathers) is not small to him—is enough for him—should suffice for him—as an *eric* (fine) from you;" níor b̆eaʒ duit a b̆a do b̆reiṫ ó Fhionn, "it was not little for you—it was enough for you—to take away his cows from Finn."

29. Woe to.

Is maith don fear sin, "woe to that man"; a mhaith do'n druing gollear do'n olc maith, "woe to those who call evil good." Expressions of this kind are sometimes elliptical; as, "is maith nach n-déanann comhaille deagh-mhna, "woe [to him] who doeth not the counsel of a good wife" (lit. "it is woe who doeth not," &c.).

30. So .. as: as .. as.

When these "correspondent conjunctions" are expressed in Irish, the second one is usually translated either by agus, "and," or by le, "with:" agus a dubhairt sise an tan do bhoidh, a mhac comh airdeacha agus go leonfadh a mheur an fodh, "and he said to her when his son should be *so* grown (comh airdeacha) *as* that his finger would fill the ring" (lit. "so grown *and* that his finger," &c.); do bhí a sleagh cómh meamhail le mhol muillinn, "his spear was as thick as the shaft of a mill" (lit. "as thick *with*.")

Agus follows amhlaidh or amhla (thus, so, in this manner), much in the same way as it follows cómh; and in this use it sometimes answers very nearly to "viz.:" ar amhlaidh do fuair Naisi agus Deirdre, agus an Cenncaemh eadrra, "it is thus he found Naisi and Deirdre, *and* the *Cenn-chaemh* (a kind of chess-board) between them." (Meaning, "it was thus he found, viz., with the *Cenn-chaemh* between them.

31. Every other day: every second day: every alternate day.

Phrases like these are often expressed in Irish by the indefinite pronoun gach, followed by the preposition le or re. Gach le Domhnach ag dul cum teamphoill, "going to the church every other (or every alternate) Sunday; na tri sagha sin do Thuathaibh de Danann do bhí i n-Eirinn gach re n-bliadhain, "these three kings of the Tuatha De Danann were in the sovereignty of Erin every other year" (*i.e.*, each for a year).

32. The Head.

The word for *head* is used in Irish, as it is in most languages, in a great variety of idiomatic phrases. Some have been already noticed among the compound prepositions; and these and others will be understood from the following examples:—

A g-ceann bliadhna, "at the end of a year;" do bhí siad a g-ceann na faiche, "they were at the end of the field." A dubhairt Naisi le h-Ardan dul air ceann Fergusa, "Naisi said to Ardan to go for Fergus" ("to go on the head of Fergus'): fillse air a g-ceann, "turn thou back for them" ("on their head"). Ó nach liom dul ón g-contabhairt ro am ceann, "since I am not able to escape from this danger [that lies] before me"

(an ceann, "in my head" = before me). Racfad ad ceann, a Fhinn, agus a g-ceann na Féinne, "I will go to thee (or before thee), O Finn, and to the Feni" ("in thy head and in the head of the Feni"). Acar beannúd buaid acar bennacdain dá ceann, "and bear ye victory and blessing on its account" (dá ceann, "from its head"). Tan ceann gur shaoil an tolceac nac raibh baoghal an bic an péin, "although the rich man thought that there was no danger at all to (*i.e.*, of) himself" (tan ceann gur, "over the head that" = although). Is iongna duitse an gnad rin do tabairt damha tan ceann Fhinn, an Diarmaid "'it is a wonder for thee to give that love to me instead of (to) Finn,' says Diarmaid" (tan ceann Fhinn, "over the head of Finn," in preference to Finn, instead of Finn).

33. A proper noun with the genitive of a noun of office.*

When a proper noun is followed by a noun in the genitive signifying a profession, office, trade, or calling, the resulting phrase has a curious idiomatic meaning.

Seagan an fhigeadóra, which is, word for word, "John of the weaver," means in reality "John (the son, son-in-law, servant, or some other close connection) of the weaver;" Seagan na baintreabaighe, "John (the son, &c.) of the widow."

If, while the proper name is in the nominative, the second noun is also in the nominative, the meaning is quite different, the second noun being then simply in apposition to the first;" thus Feargus an maoir (gen.) is "Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward."

Suppose, now, you have to express in Irish such a phrase as "the house of Fergus, the steward," in which the proper name must be in the genitive: as the two nouns are in apposition, the second, according to a rule of Syntax (Rule 6, p. 80,) should also be in the genitive: teach Fheargus an maoir. But here is an ambiguity; for, according to the present idiom, this expression would also mean, "the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward." To avoid this ambiguity, a disagreement in case is allowed in such expressions, between the two nouns, when they are in apposition. Thus, "the house of Fergus, the steward" is teach Fheargus maor (in which Fheargus is genitive and maor nominative); whereas teach Fheargus an maoir is understood to mean "the house of Fergus (the son, &c.) of the steward." So in Dr. MacHale's translation of Homer, the first two lines are rendered:—

Bruch Achil ghenn, óigh neamhda, a'r buan ghearg,
Achil mic Pheil, an gairgideach teinntheach gairg.

"The wrath of Achilles sing, O heavenly virgin, and his enduring

* The substance of this explanation and the illustrative examples have been taken from an interesting Essay on the present state of the Irish language in Munster, written and sent to the Royal Irish Academy by Mr. John Fleming, of Rathgormack.

anger, of Achilles, son of Peleus, *the fiery fierce hero.*" Here the last noun ʒaiɾʒiḋeaċ, with its two adjectives, is in the nominative, while Acuil, with which it is in apposition, is genitive.

In the first example, Rule 7, Syntax, bean Sheaġain an ḟiġeadóɾa, accordingly, is not "the wife of John the weaver," but "the wife of John (son &c.) of the weaver;" the wife of John the weaver, would be expressed by bean Sheaġain ḟiġeadóiɾ.

34. Possession.

There is no verb in Irish corresponding to the English verb "to have" as expressing possession; and the sentence "the man has a book," is expressed in Irish by the verb tá and the preposition aʒ, in this form, tá leaḃaɾ aʒ an duine, "a book is at (or with) the man:" tá airʒead aʒum ("money is with me"), "I have money;" cia bé aʒ ḃ-ḟuil airʒead ("whoever with whom is money"), "whoever has money." Ní ḟéidiɾ le duine an nid naċ m-beiḋeaḋ aiʒe do ṫaḃairt uaiḋ, aʒuɾ ní ḃ-ḟuil do-ṁaɾḃṫaċt aʒumɾa, "it is impossible for a man to give away what he does not himself possess, and I do not possess immortality" (word-for-word: "it is not possible for a man the thing which would not be with him to give from him, and not is immortality with myself"). Do aiʒel Conċuḃaɾ Boɾaċ acaɾ do ḟiaḟɾaiġ dé an ɾaiḃ ḟleḋ ollaṁ aiʒe ḋó, "Conchobhar addressed Borach and inquired of him whether he had a feast prepared for him" (lit. "whether a feast was ready with him [*i.e.* Borach] for him [*i.e.*, Conchobhar."]).

The use of pronouns in this idiom sometimes gives rise to further idiomatic complications. Cia aʒuinne aʒ a ḃ-ḟuil an ḟíɾinne? "Which of us has the truth?" This, is word for word, "Which of us with whom is the truth?" and the interrogative appears without any government or other syntactical connection. Some good authorities believe that the preposition aʒ in this construction governs not only the relative a, but also, by a sort of attraction, the interrogative cia. Tá bean eile a n-Eoċaill a ḃ-ḟuil aici coɾóin aiɾ, "there is another woman in Youghal who has a crown on him" (*i.e.*, to whom he owes a crown: Idiom 16) Here, also, there is an apparent redundancy, the act of "having" being expressed doubly, namely, both by the relative a before ḃ-ḟuil, and by aici; and the relative, according to the same authority, would be governed by the preposition aʒ of aici. The sentence may be expressed without redundancy in this manner: —Tá bean eile a n-Eoċaill aʒ a ḃ-ḟuil coɾóin aiɾ The last example exactly resembles the English "there is a man in Dublin whom I owe a pound to him:" and perhaps it would be better to consider it, like the English sentence, merely as bad grammar, which is to be avoided by using a different form of expression in the manner shown. The apparent redundancy of the first example, which is from a good authority, cannot, however, be got rid of in this way. So also in, cia leiɾ an teaċ ɾin ("who

owns that house"), the le of leıſ would appear to govern the pronoun with which it is combined, and also the interrogative cıa.

35. Ownership.

Ownership is expressed by the verb ıſ and the preposition le, with; ıſ leatſa an teaċ, "the house belongs to thee" (lit. "it is with thee the house"); ıſ lem' aṫaıṛ na ba ſın, "those cows belong to my father" ("it is with my father those cows"); cıa léıſ na ba ſın, "who owns those cows?" ("who with him [are] those cows?") Oıṛ ıſ le neaċ éıʒın do Thuaṫa De Danann na muca, "for the pigs belong to some person of the Tuatha De Danann." (A wizard holds a golden branch in his hand, and King Cormac asks him) an leat ƒéın an ċṛaoḃ ſın? "Does that branch belong to thyself?"

Observe the distinction between this idiom and the last in the following sentence:—Tá aıṛʒead ʒo leóṛ aʒad, aċt ní leat ƒéın é, "thou hast plenty of money, but it does not belong to thyself."

36. Wanting a thing.

The idea of wanting a thing, including a wish to get it, is usually expressed by the verb tá and the preposition ó, from: tá leaḃaṛ uaım, "I want a book" (lit., "a book is from me;" cṛeud atá uaıt?" "What dost thou want?"

37. Genitive plurals of Personal Pronouns.

Each of the three prepositional pronouns, aʒaınn, aʒaıḃ, aca, has two different meanings, which are always easily distinguished by the context:—

1. Possession, as in Idiom 34: Do ḃí leaḃaıṛ aca, "they had books."

2. The sense of a genitive plural when following words denoting a part: ʒaċ ƒeaṛ aʒuınn, "each man *of us;*" ṛo eıṛıġ an daṛa ƒeaṛ acoſan do ḋéanaṁ an ċleaſa, "the second man *of them* (acoſan, "of themselves") arose to perform the feat:" cıa aʒuınne aʒ a ḃ-ƒuıl an ƒíṛınne, aṛ Fıonn, "'which *of us* has the truth,' says Finn" (aʒ a ḃ-ƒuıl, "with whom is"="has:" see Idiom 34).

38. To give a name.

To give a name to a thing is often expressed in Irish by *to put a name on it:* maṛ ʒo ttuʒṫaṛ ḋá ḃantuaṫaċ aıṛ Bhéċoıll aʒuſ aıṛ Dhanann, "as (the name) 'two ladies' was put on Bechoill and Danann: *i.e.*, as they "were called 'two ladies.'" Waṛ ʒo d-tuʒ cleaſ aıṛ an ʒ-cleaſ ſın, "as he called that feat 'a feat:'" (lit. "as that he put [the name] 'feat' on that feat").

Sometimes, also, to give such and such a name to a thing is expressed by "to say such and such a name with a thing:" Noſ-dá-

ʃáileaċ ɹiɹ a ɲáiðteaɹ Luimneaċ aniu, "Ros-da-shaileach, which is called Limerick now" (lit. "Ros-da-shaileach with which is said 'Limerick' now").

39. Oe after comparatives.

The prepositional pronoun de, "of it," is often prefixed to comparatives, giving rise to some idiomatic phrases. Agus gion go b-fuil cuid aguinn do mairbeð Diarmada, ní móide do, ġeubað (Aonġus) an fíninne uaim, "and although we have no part in killing Diarmaid, Aongus would not *the more* receive the truth from us" (here móide is de added to mó, the comparative of mór, great: for gion go = "although not:" see Idiom 11). Is furaide d'Fhionn ár loingna leanamhain, an eaċta beiċ againn, "it is the easier for Finn to follow our track that we have the horses" (furaide = de after fura, comparative of furus, easy): *i.e.*, "our having the horses makes it easier for Finn," &c.

40. "A man of great strength."

"A man of great strength," is expressed by the Irish fear is mór neart, which, translated word for word, is "a man (who) is great strength:" the words mór neart being in the nominative, and not in the genitive, as might be expected from the English "*of* great strength," This idiom is extremely common in Irish, the verb is in some of its forms being always used; and, when translating it, remember that the Irish words—though in the nominative case—convey the exact sense of the genitive with "of" in English, and must be rendered accordingly. Ní raib a ġ-cómaimsir sir fear ba mó ór agus airġead iná Diarmaid, "there was not at the same time with him a man who had more gold and silver than Diarmaid" (lit. "a man [who] was greater gold and silver," *i.e.*, "a man who was *of* greater gold and silver.") Do dearcar an beiċ ba naimda cruit, "I saw a lady (of) bright shape;" Talamh ba fearsi biaḋ agus deoċ, "a land (of) the best food and drink;" Oisín ba ċruas neart a's luċ, "Oisin of mighty strength and vigor."

Sometimes the preposition go (with) is used instead of the verb: as, fear go mór neart, "a man *with* great strength," *i.e.*, "a man of great strength."

41. A wish.

"I wish I had such and such a thing," is often expressed in Irish by some such form of phrase as, "Alas, that I have not got it!" the word gan being generally used as the negative particle. Is truaiġ gan feaca 'n maoil agum! "I wish I had the shepherd's pet!" (Here is truaiġ, "it is pity = "alas!" agum is used to denote possession, with its verb understood—Idiom 34: and the word-for-word translation is "it is pity not the pet of the shepherd with me." A Dhia gan mé am' abaillín, "I wish I were an apple" ("O God, I not an apple"—or "in my apple.")

APPENDIX.

Additional Examples of Declensions.

FIRST DECLENSION.

bṗeac, *a trout.*

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	bṗeac.	bṗic.
G.	bṗic.	bṗeac.
D.	bṗeac.	bṗeacaiḃ.
V.	a bṗic.	a bṗeaca.

SECOND DECLENSION.

Coṙ, *a foot.*

N.	coṙ.	coṙa.
G.	coiṙe.	coṙ.
D.	coiṙ.	coṙaiḃ.

THIRD DECLENSION.

Fḭżeadóiṁ, *a weaver; masc.*

N.	fḭżeadóiṁ.	fḭżeadóiṁiże.
G.	fḭżeadóṁa.	fḭżeadóiṁ.
D.	fḭżeadóiṁ.	fḭżeadóiṁiḃ.

Aċaiṁ, *a father; masc.*

N.	aċaiṁ.	aiċṗe, aiċṗeaċa.
G.	aċaiṁ.	aiċṗeaċ.
D.	aċaiṁ.	aiċṗeaċaiḃ.

(Máċaiṁ, a mother, and bṗaṫaiṁ or deaṁḃṗáṫaiṁ, a brother, are declined in the same way.)

bliaḋain, *a year; fem.*

N.	bliaḋain.	bliaḋanta.
G.	bliaḋna.	bliaḋan.
D.	bliaḋain.	bliaḋantaiḃ.

Ainm, *a name.*

N.	ainm.	anmanna.
G.	ainme, anma.	anmann.
D.	ainm.	anmannaiḃ.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

Teine, *a fire.*

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	teine.	teinte.
G.	teine.	teineaḋ.
D.	teine.	teintiḃ.

Éinín, *a little bird.*

N.	éinín.	éinínide.
G.	éinín.	éinín.
D.	éinín.	éinínib.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

lánamha, *a married couple.*

N.	lánamha.	lánamhna.
G	lánamhan.	lánamhan.
D.	lánamhaiṁ.	lánamhnaiḃ

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

Ga, *a spear.*

N.	ga, gaṫ.	gaoi, gaeċa, gaoiṫe.
G.	gai, gaoi.	gaṫ, gaeṫaḋ, gaoiṫeaḋ.
D.	ga, gai.	gaoiḃ, geaṫaiḃ gaoiṫiḃ.

Cró, *a hut, a sheepfold.*

N.	cró.	craoiṫe, croiṫe.
G.	cró.	cró.
D.	cró.	craoiṫiḃ, croiṫiḃ.
V.	a ċró.	a ċráoiṫe a ċróiṫe.

Sliaḃ, *a mountain.*

N.	sliaḃ.	sléiḃte.
G.	sléiḃe.	sléiḃteaḋ.
D.	sliaḃ.	sléiḃtiḃ.

THE TEST OF TIME.

"The Irish-American,"

The Oldest Distinctively Irish Paper in America

ESTABLISHED 1849.

Contains every week a Careful Summary of the News of the World.

NEWS FROM EVERY COUNTY IN IRELAND A SPECIALTY.

This feature of "THE IRISH-AMERICAN" has for years past been universally quoted as the Irish press in America as the fullest, most accurate and latest that can be obtained. Irish Marriages and Deaths, Stories, Sketches, &c.; everything interesting for Irish readers. History of Irish Family Names, &c.

LESSONS IN GAELIC

(PRINTED IN THE IRISH CHARACTER).

The best and most reliable Irish Paper published on this Continent

PRICE, FIVE CENTS.

Yearly Subscription, - - - - - - - - - - $2.5
Clubs of Ten, - - - - - - - - - - - 20.0

Published by the Proprietors,

LYNCH, COLE & MEEHAN,

12 Warren Street, New York

BROS. Inc.
e, N. Y.
n, Calif.

M544715

PB1223
J6

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA LIBRARY